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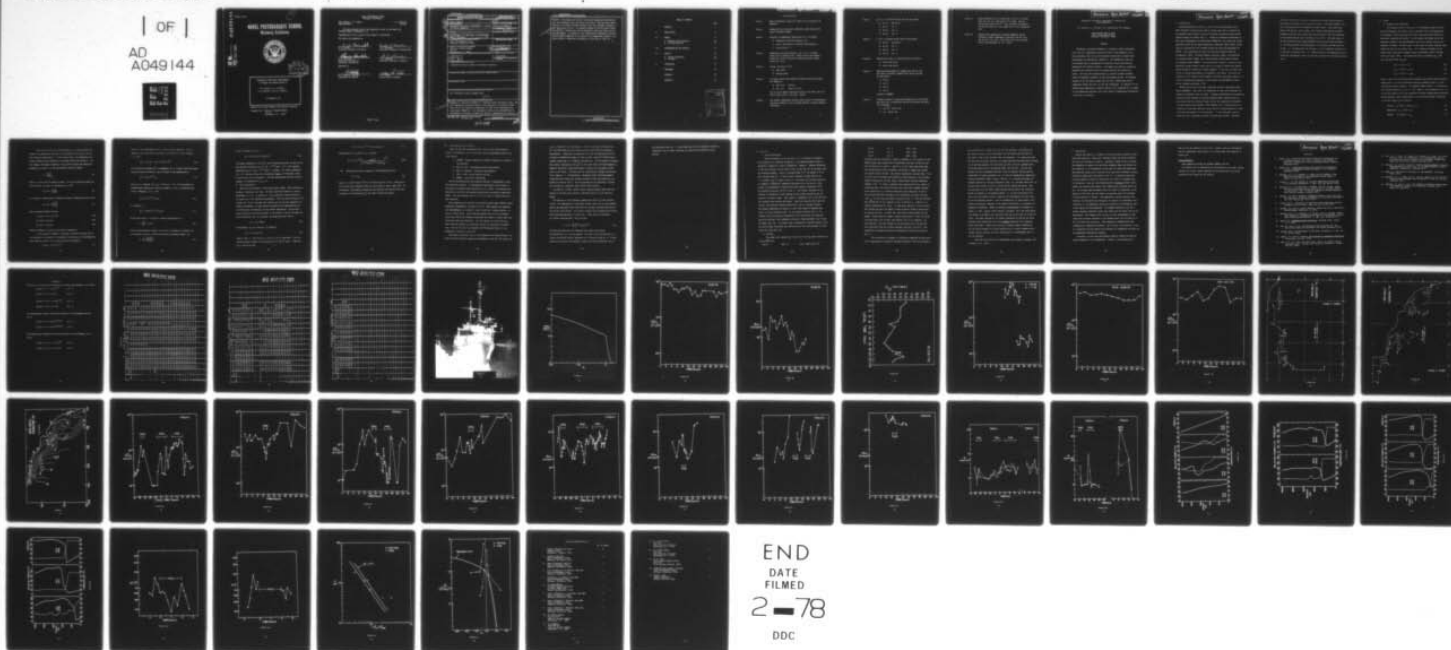
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ATMOSPHERIC TURBULENCE MEASUREMENTS
IN MARINE FOG DURING CEWCOM-76

C.W. Fairall, K.L. Davidson,
T.M. Houlihan, and G.E. Schacher

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humidity. This paper will focus on turbulence properties and turbulent heat flux measured during four marine fog events. The fogs were characterized by a slightly unstable boundary layer with moderate increases of heat flux during the fog. An ensemble average of the fog events showed that C_T^2 and ϵ reached peak values immediately before and after the fog was encountered. An analysis of the dimensionless temperature structure function (C_T^2 normalized by the square of the temperature gradient) gave lower values of temperature fluctuations in fog than in clear air.



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Figure Captions

Figure 1 Naval Postgraduate School R/V Acania at the conclusion of CEWCOM-76.

Figure 2 Normalized heat conduction coefficient (eddy diffusivity) versus Richardson number.

Figure 3 Variation of atmospheric quantities at $Z = 10$ meters:

- a) temperature structure function, C_T^2
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- b) Oct 5-9 (Fog #'s 2,3,4)

The six digit number indicates the day of the month (dd) and time of day (tttt) in the code - ddtttt.

Figure 7 Sea surface temperature contours from aircraft IR measurements. Courtesy of Backes (1977) and Ralph Markson, Airborne Research Associates.

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- a) Fog #1 Sep 27-28
- b) Fog #2 Oct 5
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- a) Fog #1 Sep 27-28
- b) Fog #2 Oct 5
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Courtesy of NWSMET.

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Figure 14 Dimensionless temperature structure parameter versus Richardson number (atmospheric stability) for fog (x's) and non-fog (o's) data. The solid line is the overland results from Wyngaard, et. al. (1971).

Atmospheric Turbulence Measurements in Marine Fog
during CEWCOM-76

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Abstract

Atmospheric turbulence parameters ϵ (turbulent energy dissipation rate), and C_T^2 (temperature structure function) were measured in the marine boundary layer during the Cooperative Experiment for West Coast Oceanography and Meteorology (CEWCOM-76). The atmospheric stability was characterized by measurements of profiles of mean wind velocity, temperature and relative humidity. This paper will focus on turbulence properties and turbulent heat flux measured during four marine fog events. The fogs were characterized by a slightly unstable boundary layer with moderate increases of heat flux during the fog. An ensemble average of the fog events showed that C_T^2 and ϵ reached peak values immediately before and after the fog was encountered. An analysis of the dimensionless temperature structure function (C_T^2 normalized by the square of the temperature gradient) gave lower values of temperature fluctuations in fog than in clear air.

I. Introduction

During September and October of 1976 the Naval Postgraduate School (NPS) shipboard turbulence and profile systems were used in a marine fog and boundary layer research cruise off Southern California aboard the NPS research vessel R/V ACANIA (Fig. 1). Termed the Cooperative Experiment in West Coast Oceanography and Meteorology (CEWCOM-76), the cruise was jointly organized by NPS and the Naval Electronics Laboratory Center (NELC) of San Diego in collaboration with CALSPAN Corporation under the sponsorship of NAVAIR. Also represented on board were the Naval Avionics Facility, Indianapolis (NAFI), the Naval Research Laboratory (NRL), the California Air Resources Board (CARB), and a Naval Weather Systems Service Mobile Environmental Team (NWSMET). This was the most recent of a series of data gathering cruises forming a major part of a program of marine fog investigation sponsored by Naval Air Systems Command. It was also the third such cruise to include measurements of atmospheric turbulence. The first was conducted in 1974 aboard the R/V ACANIA off Northern California (Mack et al, 1975); the second was conducted in 1975 aboard the USNS HAYES off Nova Scotia (Gathman and Larson, 1976).

Marine fog is one of the least understood and most complicated atmospheric phenomena. Mack (1975) has identified at least five different fog formation "scenarios" over the ocean. Although considerable fog forecasting success has been obtained by skilled phenomenologists employing various fog indices (such as inversion height and air sea temperature difference) in local coastal areas (Leipper, 1948. Backes, 1977), accurate marine fog prediction in the open ocean will surely benefit from applications of knowledge from the synoptic to the microscale. On the microscale, the production of fog is governed by several (interacting) factors: aerosols,

radiation, hydrostatic stability, temperature inversion characteristics, and turbulent transport of heat and water vapor. Turbulent transport was first incorporated into fog modeling by Rodhe (1962). More modern fog models (Lee and Lin, 1975; Barker, 1975) employ sophisticated turbulent parameter stability and scaling laws (see section II) that are unverified in the marine boundary layer (Davidson et al, 1977). The main thrust of the NPS turbulence group during CEWCOM-76 was to attack these problems by:

- 1) providing modelers with measurements of turbulence and mean profiles in fog,
- 2) obtaining data for evaluation of the turbulence scaling laws in the marine boundary layer,
- 3) examining some of the characteristics of turbulence "background" levels for non-fog conditions in the marine boundary layer.

II. Theory

A. Boundary layer equations

The boundary layer is that part of the atmosphere where friction with and heating by the surface play an important role in the generation of turbulence. Near the surface the shear stress and scalar fluxes are essentially constant with height. In this region the fluxes can be represented in terms of scaling parameters (such as u_* and T_*) that are independent of height. We shall refer to this layer of nearly constant shear stress and flux as the surface layer. For a complete treatment of the surface layer equations we suggest Lumley and Panofsky (1964), Businger (1971) and Kraus (1972). The normalized fluxes of momentum (F_m), heat (F_h) and water vapor (F_q) are

$$F_m = - \langle u'w' \rangle = u_*^2 \quad (1a)$$

$$F_h = - \langle T'w' \rangle = u_* T_* \quad (1b)$$

$$F_q = - \langle q'w' \rangle = u_* q_* \quad (1c)$$

where u' and w' are the fluctuating horizontal and vertical wind velocities, respectively, T' is the fluctuating potential temperature and q' is the fluctuating specific humidity. The Reynolds shear stress, τ , is related to the friction velocity, u_* , by $\tau = \rho u_*^2$, where ρ is the density of air. In the surface layer we can write simplified turbulent energy balance equations using production terms (proportional to the vertical gradient, $\partial x / \partial z$) and dissipation terms [ϵ_x] as follows:

$$\text{velocity: } u_*^2 \partial u / \partial z - \frac{g}{T} u_* T_* = \epsilon \quad (2a)$$

$$\text{temperature: } u_* T_* \partial T / \partial z = \epsilon_T \quad (2b)$$

$$\text{humidity: } u_* q_* \partial q / \partial z = \epsilon_q \quad (2c)$$

Note that the velocity equation (where $\epsilon_u \equiv \epsilon$) has an extra production (or suppression) term due to the buoyancy of air (T_v is the virtual potential temperature). In the surface layer, the appropriate turbulent transport scale parameter is the height above the surface, z . In this regime, turbulence properties can be scaled through the similarity parameter z/L , where L is the Monin-Obukhov stability length.

$$L = \frac{T u_*^2}{\kappa g T_{v*}}, \quad (3)$$

where $\kappa = .35$ is the von Karman constant. We can now define the mean profile functions $\phi_x(z/L)$ as (Businger, et al, 1971)

$$\phi_x(z/L) = \frac{\kappa z}{x_*} \frac{\partial x}{\partial z} \quad (4)$$

If we define a dimensionless dissipation function (Wyngaard and Cote, 1971)

$$E_x(z/L) \equiv \frac{\epsilon_x}{u_*^3} \frac{\kappa z}{x_*} \quad (5)$$

then the energy equations become

$$\phi_u(z/L) - z/L = E_u(z/L) \quad (6a)$$

$$\phi_T(z/L) = E_T(z/L) \quad (6b)$$

$$\phi_q(z/L) = E_q(z/L) \quad (6c)$$

Present estimates of ϕ_x and E_u are given in Appendix A.

In the inertial subrange, turbulence is nearly isotropic and we can represent the intensity of turbulence fluctuations as a one-dimensional power spectrum, $S_x(k)$, of the form proposed by Kolmogorov

$$S_x(k) = .25 C_x^2 k^{-5/3} \quad (7)$$

where k is the wavenumber and C_x^2 is the structure function. If the quantity x has value $x(r)$ at position r and value $x(r + d)$ at position $r + d$ then

$$C_x^2 = \langle [x(r) - x(r + d)]^2 \rangle d^{-2/3} \quad (8)$$

In the inertial subrange C_x^2 is independent of d . Corrsin (1951) has shown that the structure function can be related to the dissipation by

$$C_x^2 = 4 \beta_x \epsilon^{-1/3} \epsilon_x \quad (9)$$

where β_x is a constant, $\beta_T = \beta_q = .81$ and $\beta_u = .52$. We can construct a dimensionless temperature structure parameter, $f(z/L)$, by combining eqs. 6 and 9 (Wyngaard, et al., 1971)

$$C_T^2 = T_*^2 z^{-2/3} f_1(z/L) \quad (10)$$

or, using eq. 4

$$C_T^2 = (\partial T / \partial z)^2 z^{4/3} f_2(z/L) \quad (11)$$

We can also use eq. 5 to obtain a similar expression for ϵ .

$$\epsilon = \frac{u_*^3}{\kappa z} E_u(z/L) \quad (12)$$

Since the Monin-Obukhov length is difficult to measure, we normally use an alternate stability variable-the gradient Richardson number, R_i ,

$$R_i = \frac{g}{T} \frac{(\partial T_v / \partial z)}{(\partial u / \partial z)^2} \quad (13)$$

which is related to z/L by

$$R_i = (z/L) \phi_T(z/L) / (\phi_u(z/L))^2 \quad (14)$$

The height dependence of C_T^2 and ϵ can be obtained from eqs. 10 and 12; for near neutral conditions ($R_i \approx 0$) $C_T^2 \sim z^{-2/3}$ and $\epsilon \sim z^{-1}$. For unstable conditions ($R_i < 0$) $C_T^2 \sim z^{-4/3}$ and $\epsilon \sim \text{constant}$. For stable conditions ($R_i > 0$), turbulent eddies are increasingly damped by increasing stable stratification of the atmosphere. Overland measurements indicate complete damping of turbulence for $R_i \geq .21$.

B. Flux calculations

There are four methods of calculating scalar fluxes: eddy correlation, gradient, turbulence, and bulk. The eddy correlation method is a direct measurement of $x'w'$ in equation 1. This requires a stable platform so we cannot use it for shipboard measurements. The bulk method (Friehe, 1977) relates the flux to the mean wind velocity and the air-sea temperature or humidity difference. We have found this method to be unsatisfactory due to difficulties in measuring the sea surface temperature. The gradient method relates the vertical gradient of the scalar to the flux through the eddy diffusivity, K_x . For instance, the normalized heat flux is

$$F_h = - K_T (\partial T / \partial z) \quad (15)$$

Unfortunately, K_T is a function of stability,

$$K_T = \kappa z u_* / \phi_T(z/L) \quad (16)$$

shown in Fig. 2. Note that $K_T = 0$ for $R_i \geq .21$ in this model. The turbulence method is based on calculations of T_* from C_T^2 and ϵ . Combining eqs. 9 and 6b we find

$$T_{*}^2 = \kappa z C_T^2 \epsilon^{1/3} / (3.2 u_{*} \phi_T(z/L)) \quad (17)$$

Substituting for u_{*} with eq. 12, we obtain

$$F_h = \pm C_T \epsilon^{1/3} \left[\frac{(\kappa z)^{4/3}}{3.2 (E_u(z/L))^{1/3} \phi_T(z/L)} \right]^{1/2} \quad (18)$$

The sensible heat flux is related to the normalized flux by

$$W = C F_h \quad (19)$$

where $C = 1.3 \times 10^3$ joule/(°C m³) is the heat capacity of air. Equations 15 and 18 have their analogous forms for calculation of water vapor flux. Unfortunately, instrumental limitations and problems (see Section III) have prevented us from measuring C_q^2 and $(\partial q / \partial z)$ during fog events.

III. Instrumentation and Analysis

Since the NPS work represented only a part of the total shipboard effort for CEWCOM-76, we will first list the key measurements made by the other groups:

1. CALSPAN - aerosol spectra and chemical composition, visibility and profiles.
2. NRL (R. Jeck) - Knollenberg aerosol spectrometer.
3. NAFI (J. Russell) - microwave refractometer.
4. CARB - ozone, carbon monoxide and NO_x .
5. NWSMET - twice daily radiosondes.

The NPS instrumentation was primarily devoted to measurement of mean and turbulence profiles. A comprehensive description of this system is the subject of another paper (Houlihan, et al., 1977). The profiles were measured at four fully instrumented levels plus a sea surface temperature sensor. The level heights were 4.2, 6.6, 11.3 and 17.7 meters above the mean waterline.

Mean temperature was measured with Hewlett-Packard Model HP2801A quartz oscillator thermometers, accurate to .01 °C. Mean humidity was measured with Hydrodynamic, Inc. Digital II type 15-1818 LiCl Dunmore sensors, accurate to about 3% RH. These humidity sensors have very slow response above about 95% RH and response variations from sensor to sensor make them unreliable under fog conditions. For this reason, we do not have fog event humidity profiles of sufficient accuracy to calculate the humidity flux. The wind velocity was measured with Thornthwaite Model 101 cup anemometers, accurate to about 5%.

Wind speed fluctuations (for ϵ) were measured with Thermo-Systems, Inc. Model TSI 1054B constant temperature anemometers using TSI 1210 probes with

6 mil. cylindrical hot-film sensors. The hot films were calibrated on a TSI 1125 Calibrator with the cables actually used during the shipboard measurements. Temperature fluctuations (for C_T^2) were measured with GTE Sylvania ac wheatstone bridges (3.0 kHz carrier) using TSI 1210-P.8 micro thermal probes with 2.5 μ diameter platinum wire. We had planned to measure water vapor fluctuations (for C_q^2) at one level using an Electro-Magnetics Research Corporation Lyman-alpha sensor, however this instrument failed early in the cruise. The mean data was continuously averaged and periodically logged by a microprocessor designated MIDAS (Microprogrammable Integrated Data Acquisition System) developed at NPS and adapted for the ACANIA by Plunkett (1977). The fluctuating data was amplified, filtered and recorded on a Honeywell Model 5600 FM tape recorder.

In addition, the NPS acoustic radar (Aeroenvironment Model 300) was mounted on the ship and provided a continuous monitor of the inversion height.

The analysis of the turbulence signals was guided by noise considerations. The combination of long sensor cables (about 150 ft) and somewhat impure ship generated power restricted our analysis options--particularly for the hot film systems. The velocity signals were processed with Fourier power spectrum analyzers to yield $S_u(f)$. Using Taylor's hypothesis ($k = 2\pi f/u$) and equations 7 and 9 we find

$$\epsilon = 2.67 \frac{2\pi}{u} \left[f^{5/3} S_u(f) \right]^{3/2} \quad (20)$$

The spectral method has the advantage that power source noise (60,120,180 Hz, etc.) can be ignored. The bulk of the C_T^2 data were obtained from paired sensors (separated by 0.3 meters) using eq. 8. In some cases only one sensor was operable; these were spectrum analyzed and C_T^2

was calculated using eq. 7. Being based upon the high frequency turbulence components, both of these techniques are relatively unaffected by ship motions.

IV. Results

A. General Background

Before plunging into the fog data, it is of interest to examine the variability of turbulence parameters in the marine boundary layer to establish a feeling for typical "background" behavior. Nominal variations of C_T^2 and ϵ during a 24 hour period (Fig. 3a and Fig. 3b) in the open ocean are relatively smooth. Since ϵ is proportional to u^3 , we expect it to be more variable than C_T^2 . A typical daily variation of wind velocity at $z = 10$ meters (u_{10}) is shown in Fig. 3c. Of course, C_T^2 is quite sensitive to changes in atmospheric temperature gradients as we can see in a comparison of measurements in Monterey Bay under neutral conditions (7/76) and unstable conditions (12/76) in Fig. 4. The diurnal variation of C_T^2 overland is dominated by solar heating of the surface during the day and radiative cooling at night. This leads to a maximum of C_T^2 in the afternoon and minimum around sunrise and sunset. Since the ocean has both high heat capacity and excellent thermal conductivity (due to turbulent mixing), the surface temperature is subject to only a few tenths of degrees modulation by solar heating cycles. In the slightly unstable ($R_1 \approx -0.1$) boundary layer we typically encountered in the open ocean, we found that radiation cooling of the atmosphere produced a slight maximum of C_T^2 during the night (Fig. 5a). In coastal areas, influenced by land-sea breeze cycles, we found diurnal variations more characteristic (but less extreme) of those found over land (Fig. 5b).

B. Fog Data

This paper will concentrate on the first four fog events encountered during CEWCOM 76:

Fog #1

Sept. 27

1100 - 0800 (Sept. 28)

Fog #2	Oct. 5	0700 - 1100
Fog #3	Oct. 8	1000 - 1800
Fog #4	Oct. 9	0800 - 1200

Fog event data are provided in tables in Appendix B. The location of the ACANIA during these events can be established from Fig. 6a (Fog #1) and Fig. 6b (Fog #'s 2,3, and 4). Fog #'s 1,3, and 4 were open ocean fogs, all located west of Point Conception; Fog #2 was a coastal fog located just south of Palos Verdes. Sea surface temperature contours (Fig. 7) for the first week of October were measured by Ralph Markson in the Airborne Research Associate's aircraft using a Barnes PRT-5 infrared radiometer (Backes, 1977). In order to simplify the presentation of four levels of turbulence data, the values from each level have been averaged together after translation to a 10 meter equivalent value using eqs. 10 and 12. The 10 meter equivalent averages of the temperature structure function ($\langle C_T^2 \rangle_{10}$) for the four fog events are given in Fig. 8. Note the considerable variability of C_T^2 compared to Fig. 3a and Fig. 4. Figure 9 is a similar presentation for $\langle \epsilon \rangle_{10}$. In some cases values of ϵ are not available during fog since the impact of water droplets causes a noise spike by cooling the film. In heavy fog, this effect totally masks the real signal. We were able to obtain ϵ values during Fog #'s 1 and 4 by using hot wires which, due to their much smaller size (4.5 μ diameter), are less affected. The heat fluxes for the fog events (Figs 10a and 10b) were calculated from the 10 meter averages using eqs. 15 and 18. Representative radiosonde dew point and temperature profiles are given in Fig. 11.

The correlation of changes in turbulence parameters and fog events can be highlighted by preparing "ensemble" averages of the fog encounters.

Each fog event was divided into four one hour sections: one before and one after the fog is first encountered, and one before and one after the fog clears (Fog #2 was excluded from this analysis). If a given fog event was less than two hours duration, the second and third sections were shortened to 1/2 the fog duration. Note that both C_T^2 and ϵ rise to a maximum about 30 minutes before fog is encountered (Figs. 12a and 12b). One can also examine the more fundamental behavior of C_T^2 in terms of fog and non-fog comparisons of height dependence (eq. 10) and the dimensionless temperature structure parameter (DTSP), $f_2(R_i)$, from eq. 11. Although the height dependence exhibits no obvious dissimilarity (Fig. 13), the DTSP curve (Fig. 14) implies lower values of C_T^2 for a given $(\partial T/\partial z)$ during fog events. This is consistent with the lower fluxes obtained during fog by the turbulence method as compared to the gradient method. It is quite conceivable that this is an instrumental effect, caused by the accumulation of liquid water on the microthermal sensors. Such an accumulation, if large enough, could reduce the frequency response of the sensors sufficiently to attenuate the measured fluctuations. Based on laboratory measurements of frequency response in salt coated wires (Fairall & Schacher, 1977) one would expect this effect to be small until the water film was on the order of 30 microns thick. The rapid increase of C_T^2 before dissipation of fog and the rapid decrease after dissipation are in the opposite direction of an expected water film effect. Despite the scarcity of droplet impacts observed on the 130 micron diameter hot films (implying the 2.5 micron diameter microthermal sensors remained very dry) during Fog #2, a considerable drop in C_T^2 was measured.

Fog event data from other investigators can be found in Backes (1977) and Mack, et al. (1977).

V. Conclusions

Despite the efforts of a number of scientists during a month of ship-board data gathering, unequivocal statements about the nature of marine fog are still difficult to come by. Although it might be wise to resist the temptation to embark into arm waving arguments about the reasons for fog formation, it is interesting to note that the three open ocean fogs described were found in the vicinity of the cold water intrusion at Point Conception (upper left hand corner of Fig. 6). To describe these fogs as being formed by "warm air blowing over cold water" is probably much too optimistic, since all were characterized by unstable surface layers. Indeed, the vertical heat fluxes often dramatically increased during the fog. We can make some statements about the nature of turbulence in fog, keeping in mind that they are subject to questions about the influence of water droplets on sensors. The temperature structure function (and therefore the turbulent heat transport) was subject to considerably more variations in the atmospheric conditions conducive to fog formation than in the typical non-fog background. An ensemble analysis of C_T^2 and ϵ showed increased turbulence levels just before and just after the fog was encountered. This suggests that the fog is often superimposed on some large scale cellular structure in the boundary layer (on the order of 10 km in the down wind direction). When analyzed in dimensionless form (normalized by temperature gradient), C_T^2 is lower in fog than out of fog. It is possible the fog droplets are retarding the temperature fluctuations by evaporation-condensation response.

In general, we have made considerable progress towards the specific goals enumerated in the introduction. Notably in the provision of a

body of data for modelers to work with. However, there is considerable room for improvement (particularly in the water vapor flux capacity) in future work.

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Appendix A

The forms of the mean profile functions are taken from Businger, et al (1971).

$$\phi_u(z/L) = (1 - 15 z/L)^{-1/4} \quad z/L < 0$$

$$\phi_u(z/L) = (1 + 4.7 z/L) \quad z/L > 0$$

$$\phi_T(z/L) = .74 (1 - 9 z/L)^{-1/2} \quad z/L < 0$$

$$\phi_T(z/L) = (.74 + 4.7 z/L) \quad z/L > 0$$

The dimensionless velocity dissipation function is from Wyngaard and Cote (1971).

$$E_u(z/L) = [1 + .5 |z/L|^{2/3}]^{3/2} \quad z/L < 0$$

$$E_u(z/L) = [1 + 2.5 (z/L)^{3/5}]^{3/2} \quad z/L > 0$$

The dimensionless temperature structure functions is from Wyngaard, et al (1971).

$$f_1(z/L) = 4.9 (1 - 7 z/L)^{-2/3} \quad z/L < 0$$

$$f_1(z/L) = 4.9 (1 + 2.75 z/L) \quad z/L > 0$$

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Date	Time	T _s	T ₁₀	U ₁₀	(∂τ/∂z) ₁₀	U _*	R ₁₁₀	C _{T,10} ²	ε	grad	turb	
Fog 2	10/5	0514	19.08	19.17	3.0	-.69	.12	-.20	2.1	.52	5.7	6.4
		0632	19.27	19.10	2.5	-.30	.087	-.16	1.6	.19	1.7	3.8
		0730	22.55	19.44	2.2	-.48	.13	-.12	1.7	.57	4.1	5.8
		0829	18.35	17.90	1.3	-.82	.13	-.22	.9	.67	7.4	4.4
		0905	18.37	18.10	.7	0.23	.10	-.10	.6	.30	1.5	2.8
		0952	19.25	18.13	1.6		.09		1.2	.24		3.6
		1200	21.75	20.24	3.4	1.79	.09	-.74	1.9	.20	13.8	4.4
Fog 3	10/8	0843		21.02	3.1		.14		1.8	.76		6.4
		0945		19.27	3.4		.24		2.5	4.1		12.8
		1200		16.10	4.3	1.15	.18	-.24	1.1	.97	14.9	5.4
		1241		17.03	3.4	.12	.12	.09	.5	.45		1.0
		1416		18.36	3.0	2.94	.17	.42	.25	1.6	0	0
		1452		17.96	3.0	2.63	.20	.35	.50		0	0
		1532		16.33	3.0	2.49	.14	-.56	.30		24.7	3.0
		1605		16.05	3.0	1.02	.17	-.14	.10		10.5	1.6
		1642		15.96	3.0	1.10	.16	.14	.12		2.3	6
		1719		16.33	3.1	4.10	.15	1.00	1.10	.90	0	0
		1753		17.24	3.3	2.44	.096	1.09	1.5	.25	0	0
		2000		17.54	4.1	1.09	.18	.14	.06	1.6	2.6	6
		2017										

$$W \quad \text{m}^2/\text{m}^2$$

m/sec	10^{23} c/m	m/sec
10	10	10
20	20	20
30	30	30
40	40	40
50	50	50
60	60	60
70	70	70
80	80	80
90	90	90
100	100	100

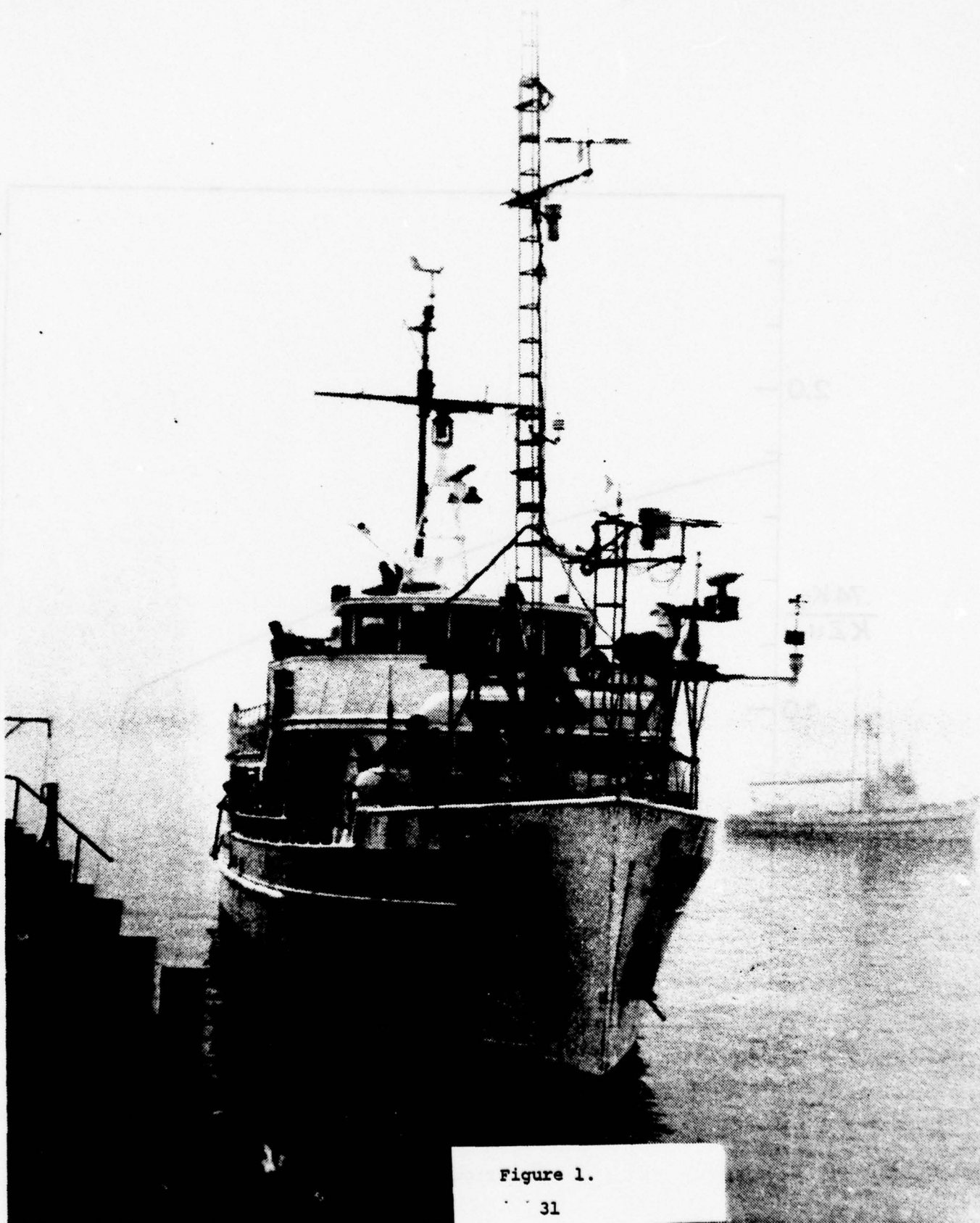


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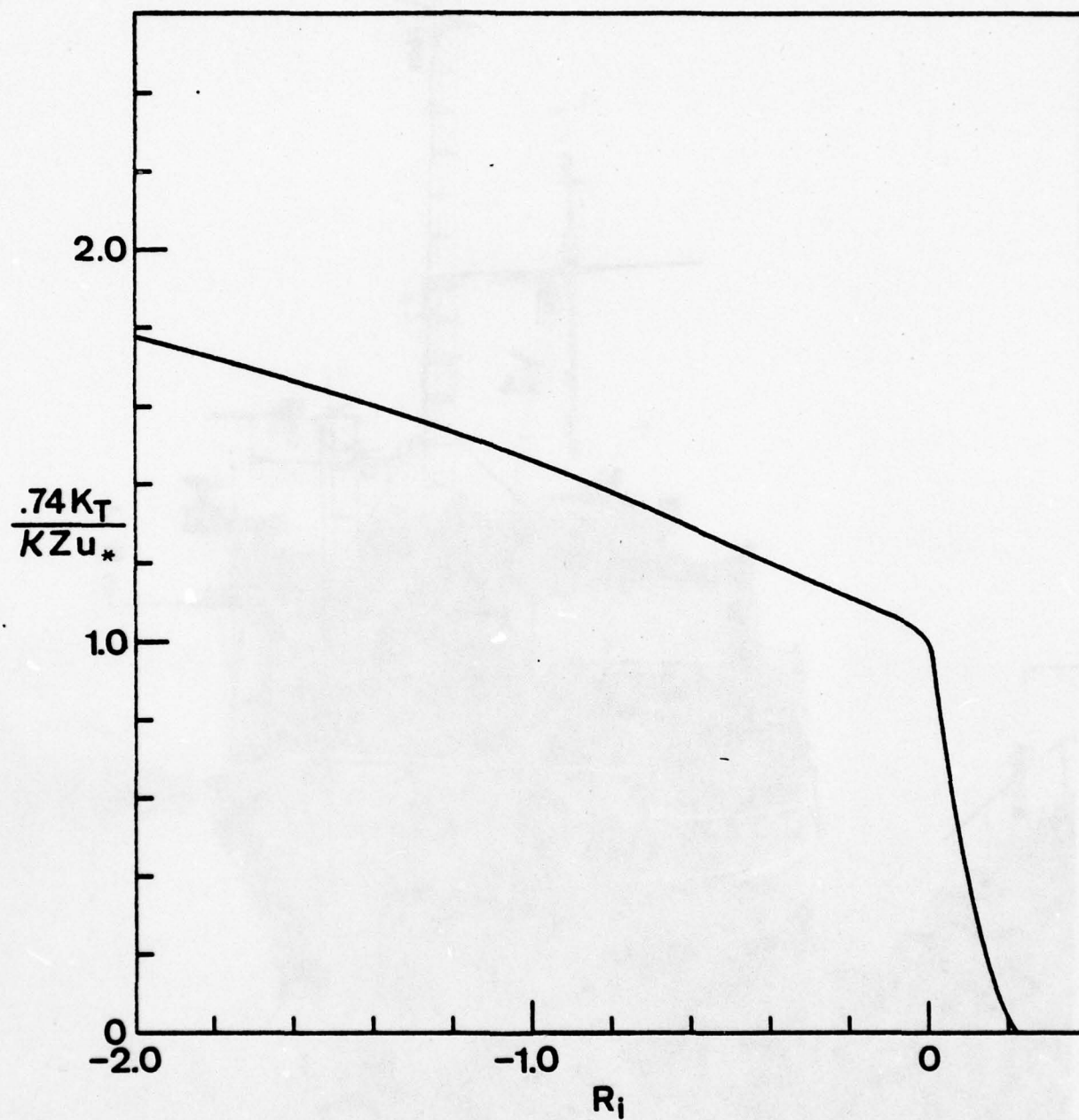


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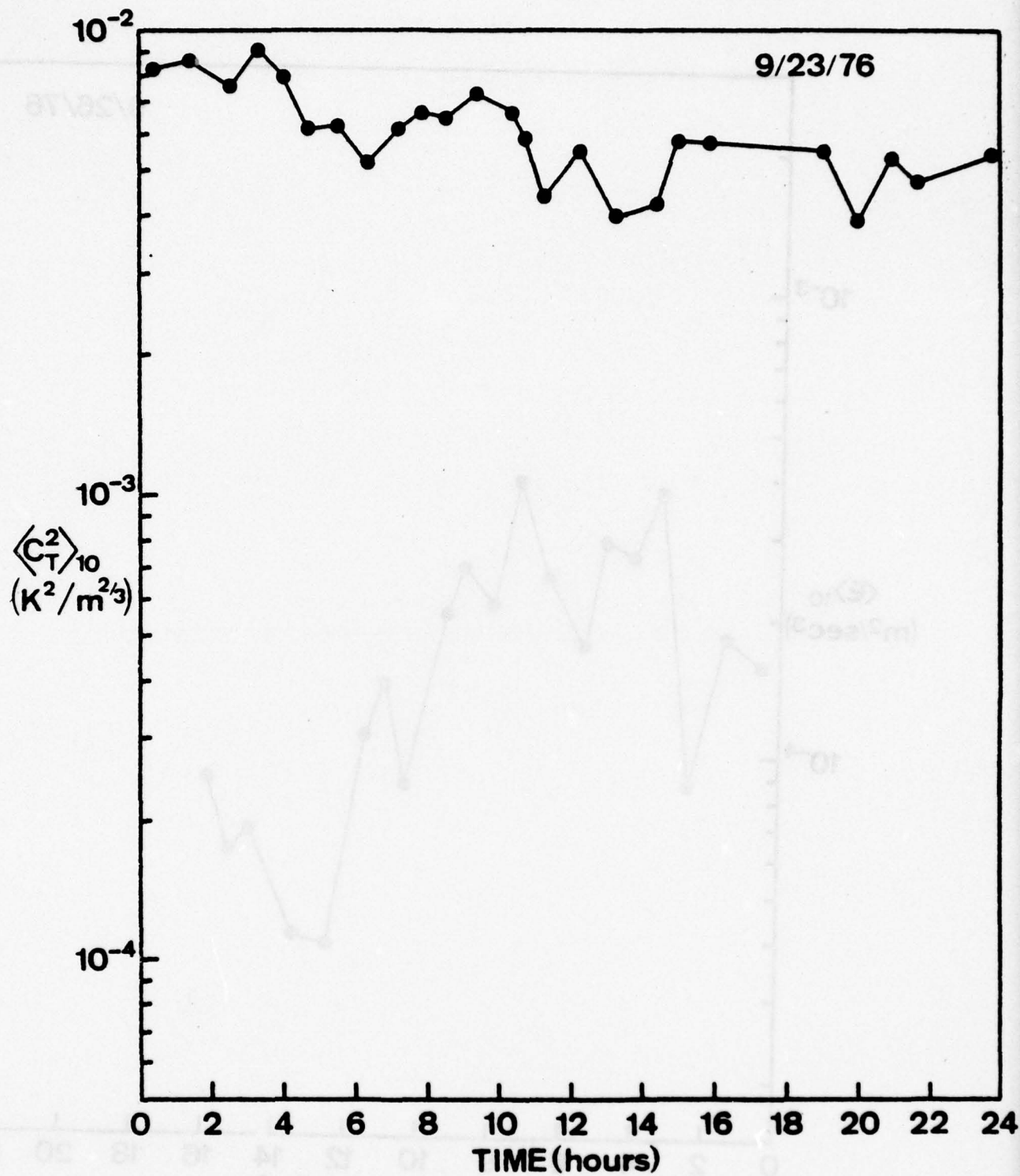


Figure 3a.

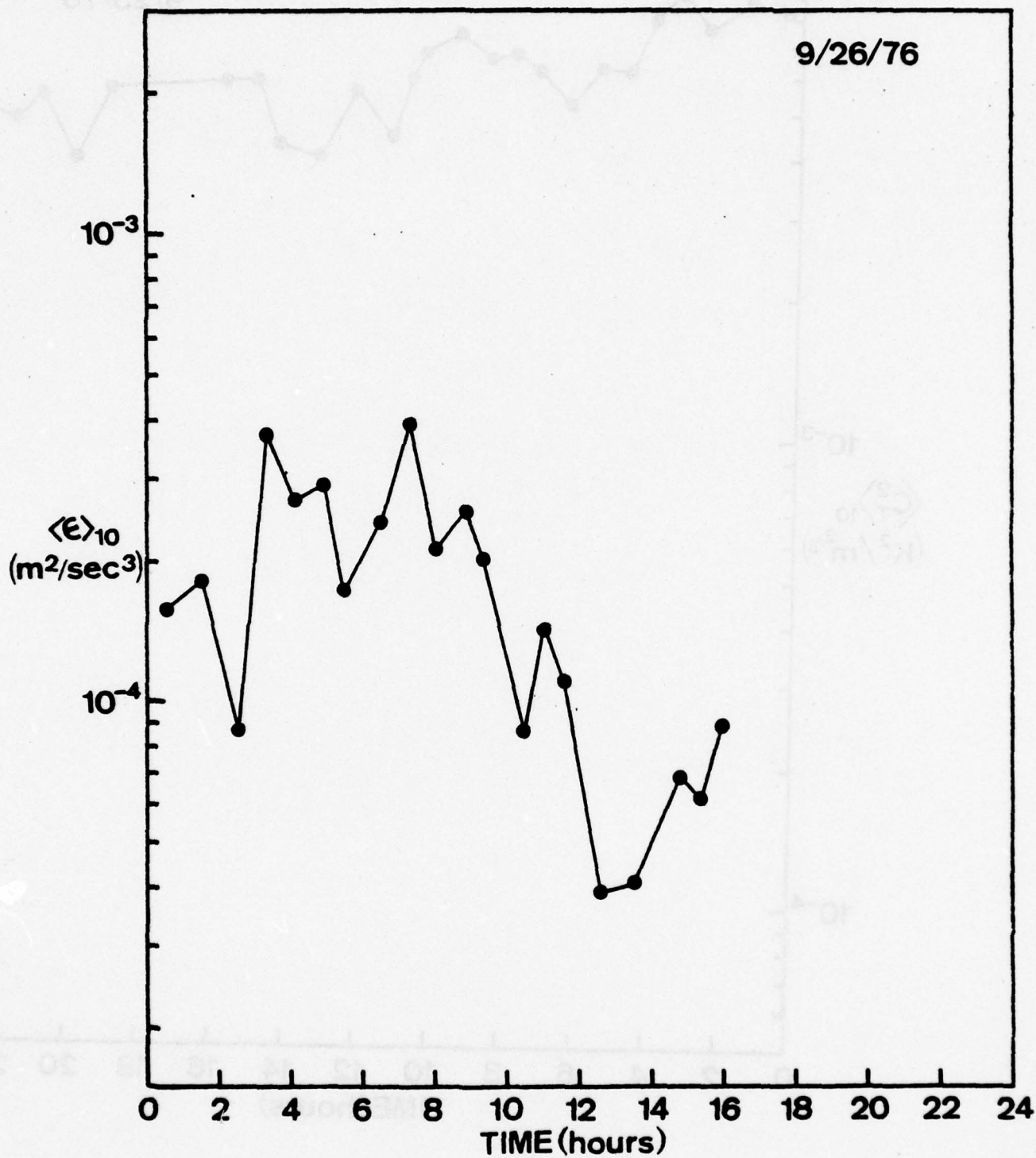


Figure 3b.

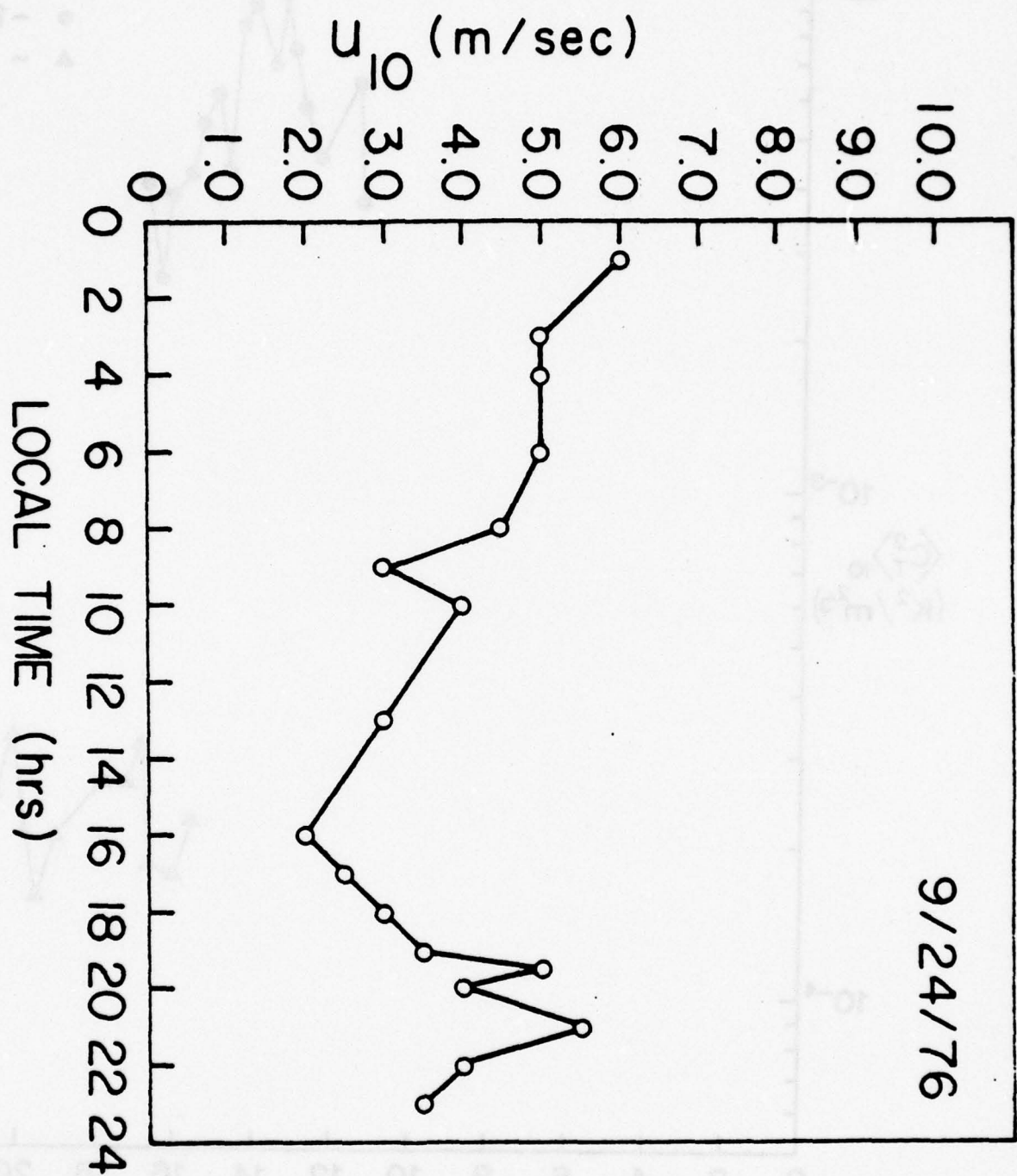


Figure 3c.

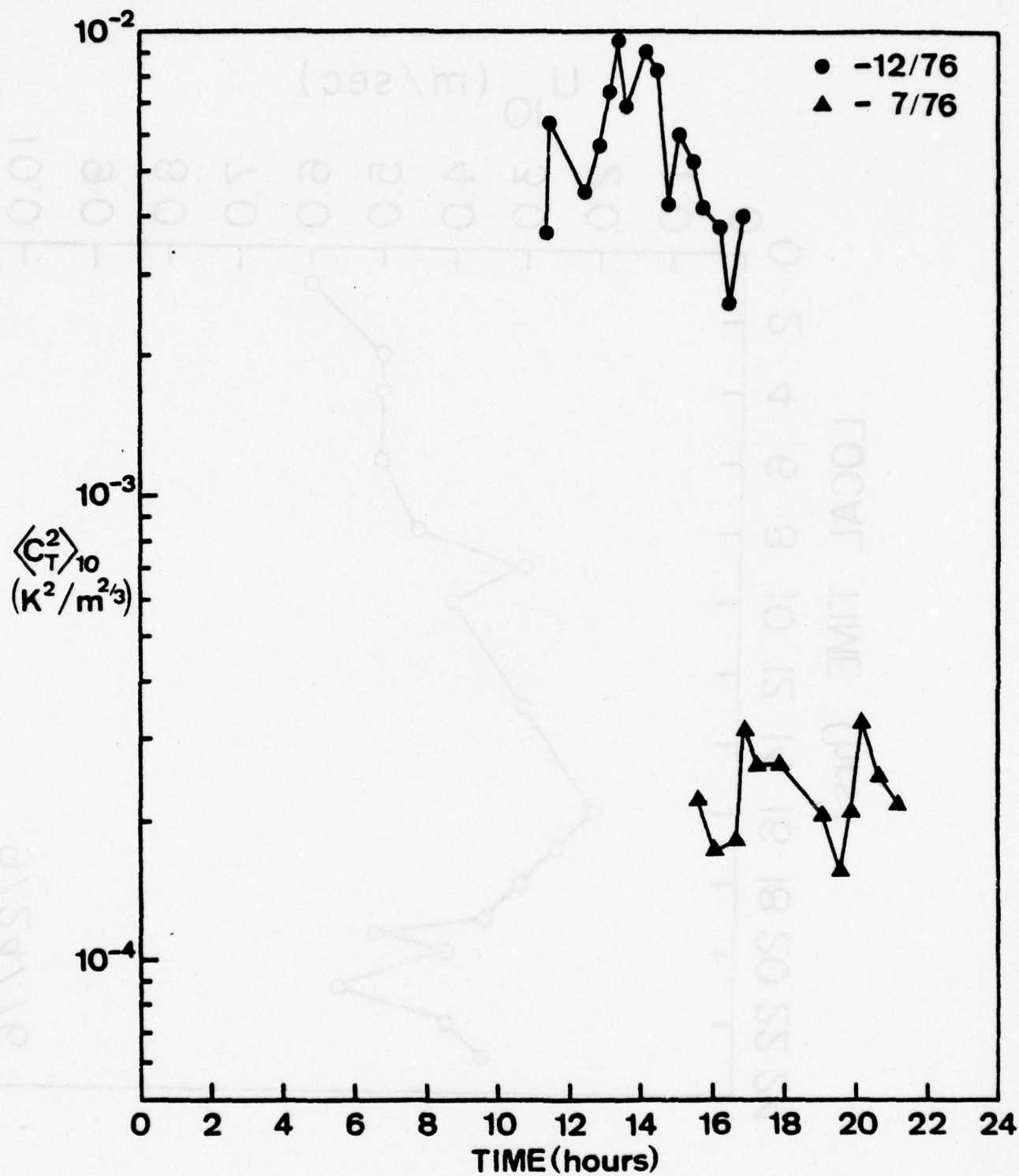


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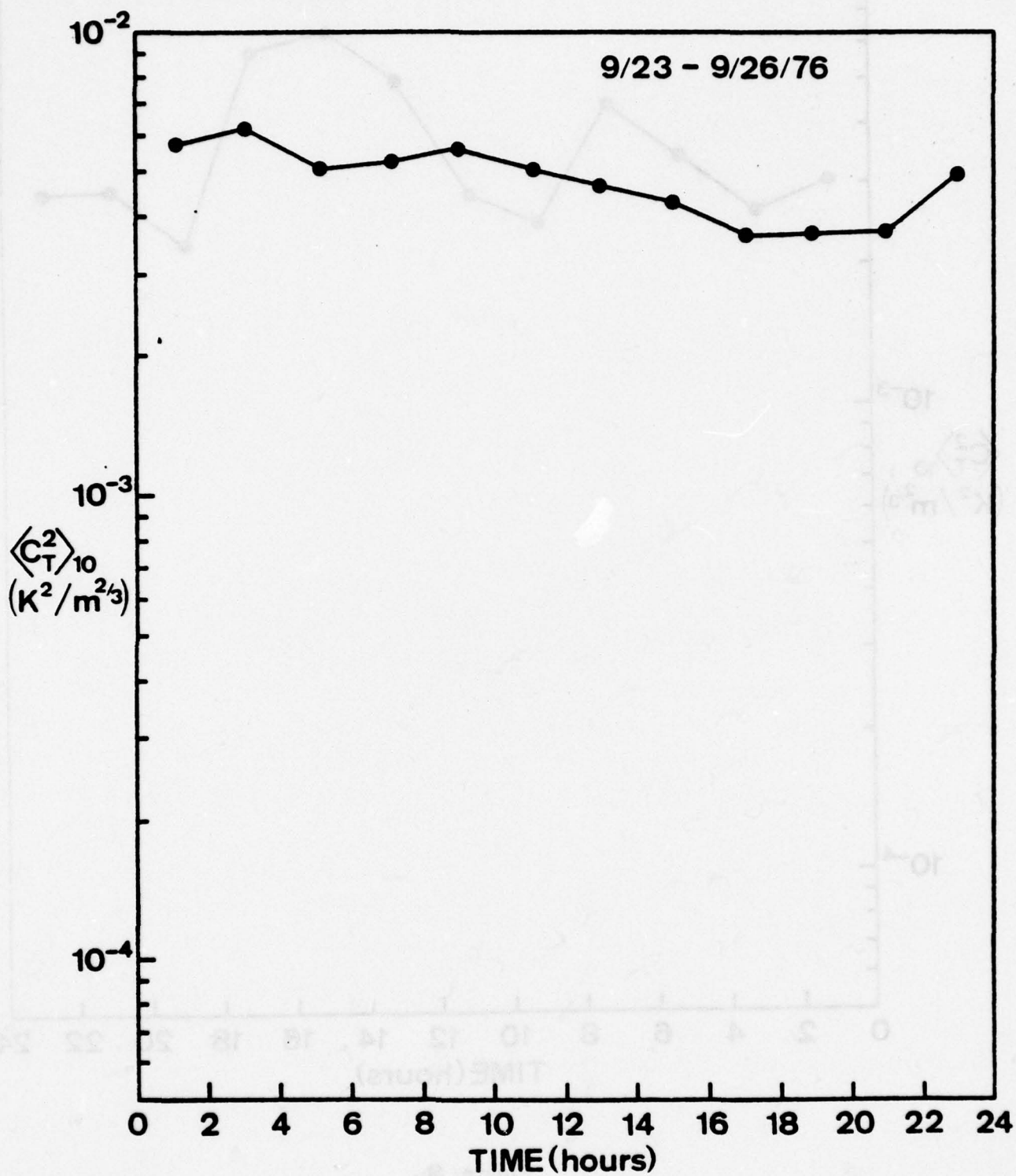


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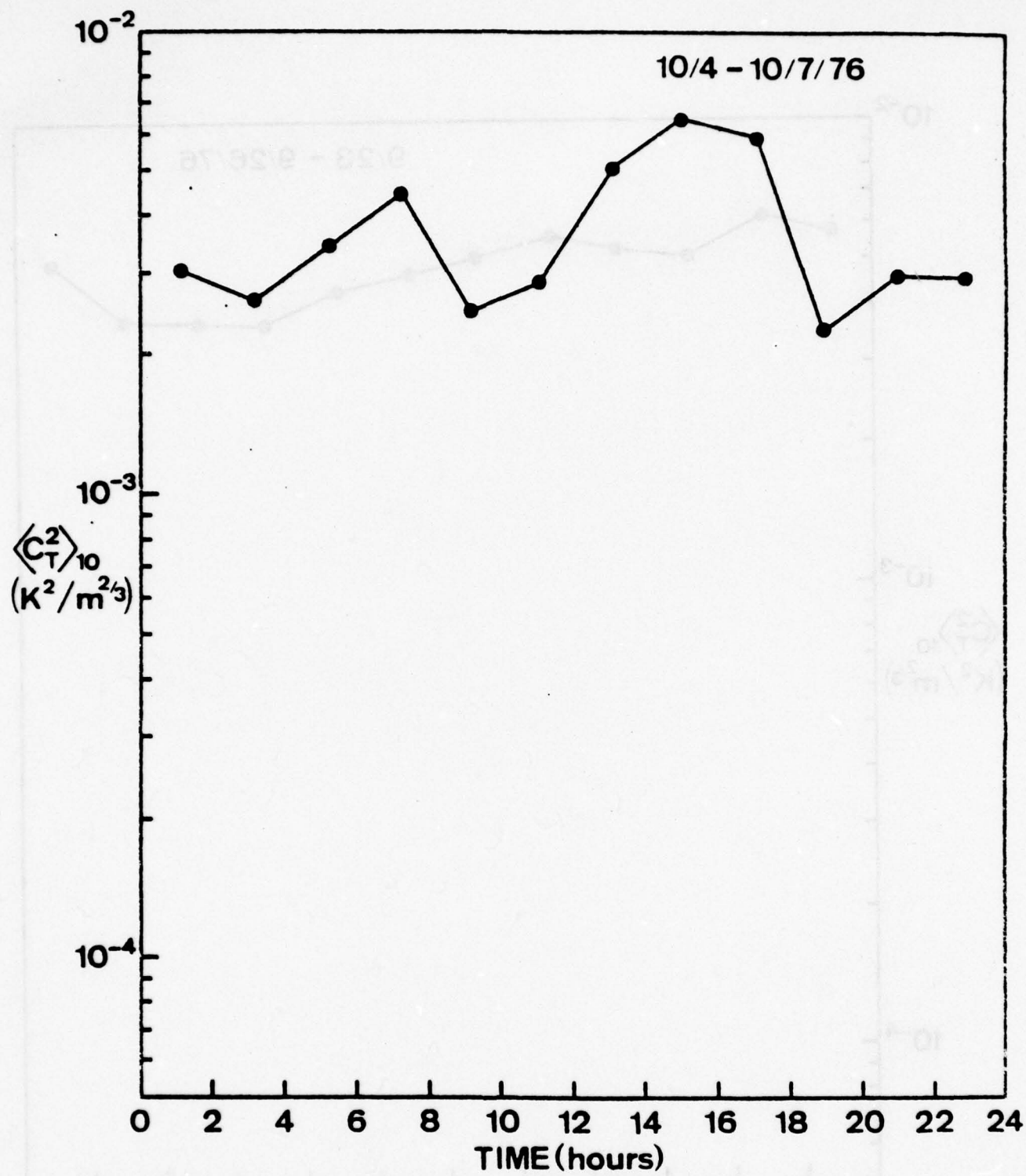


Figure 5b.

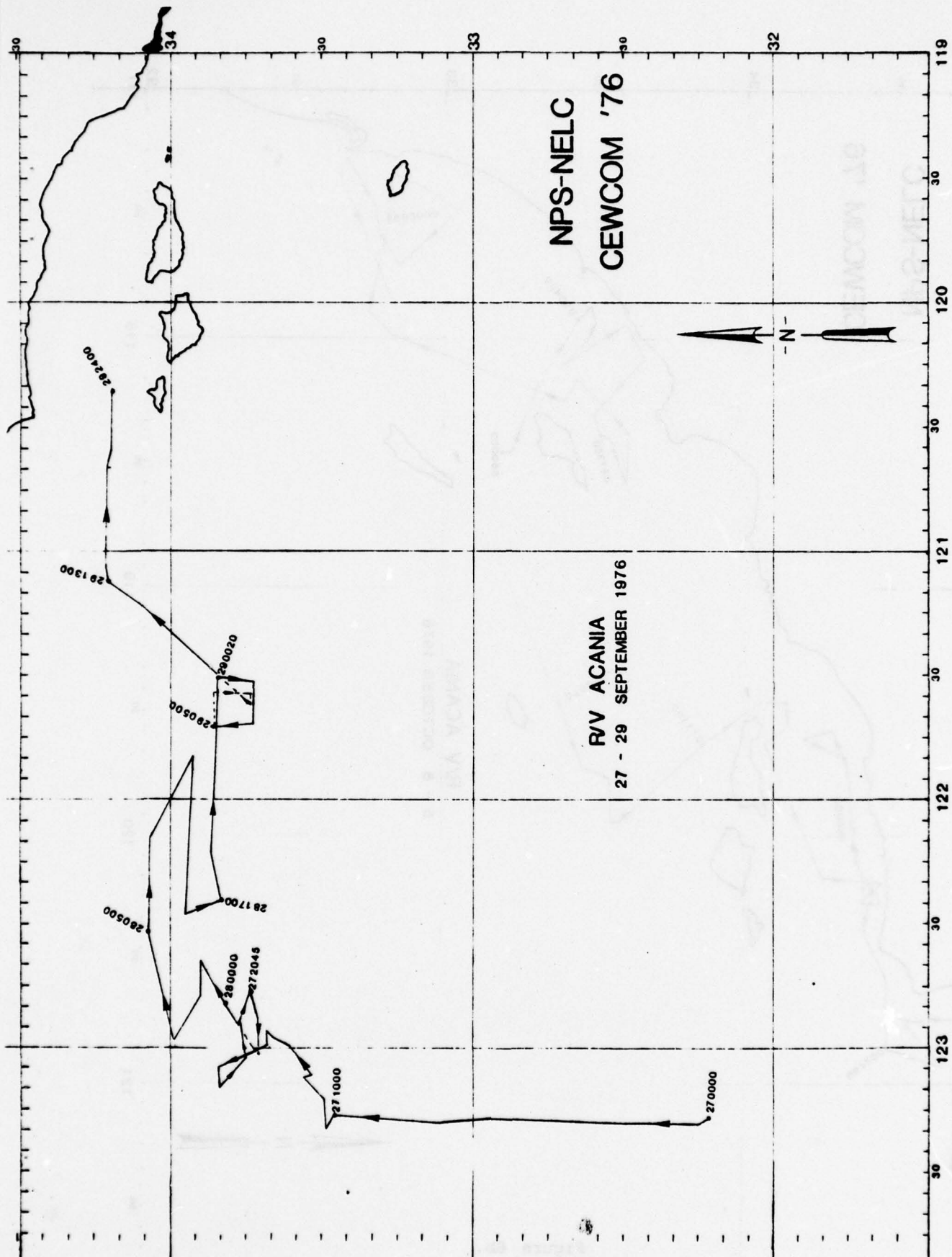


Figure 6a.

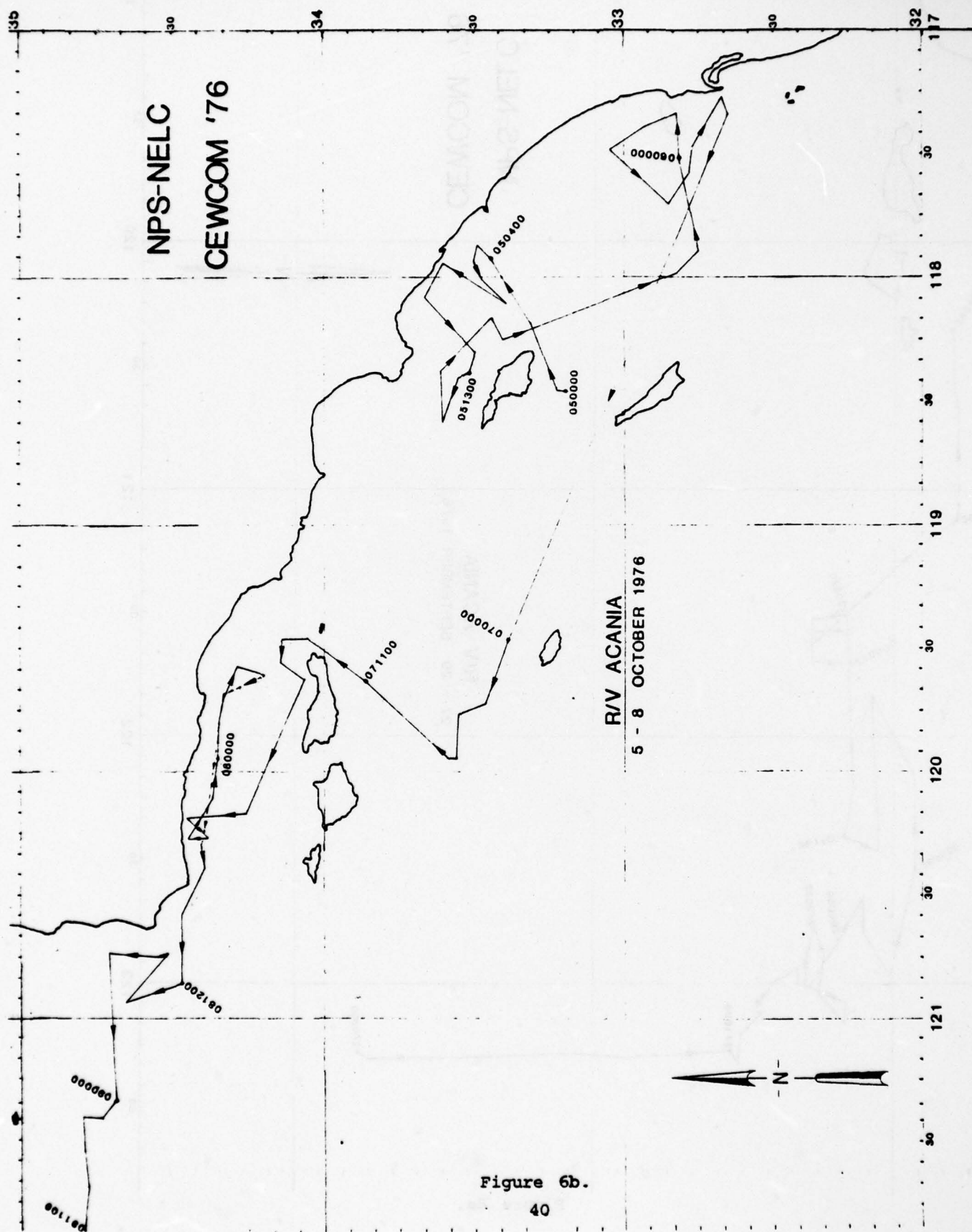


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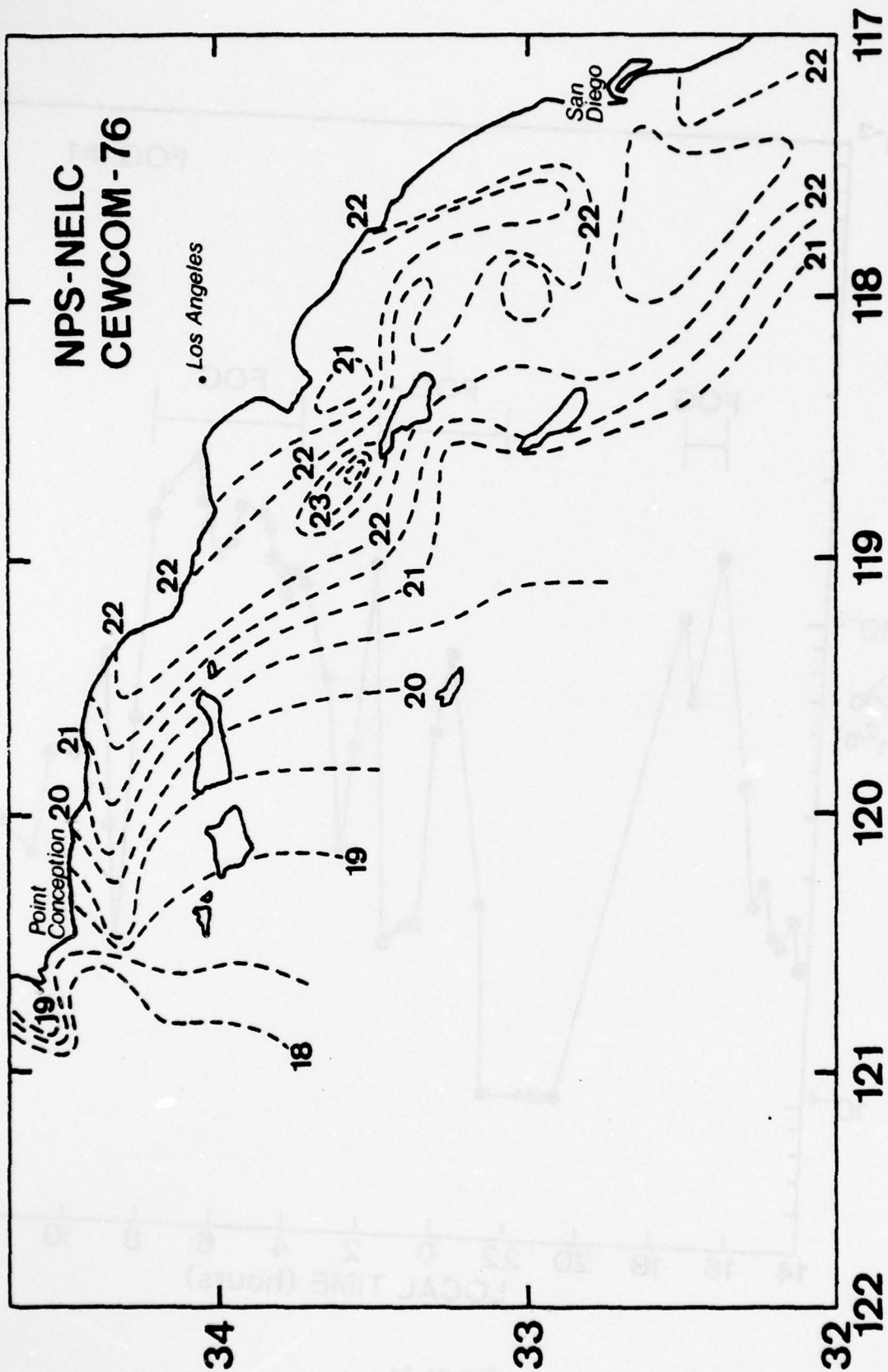


Figure 7.

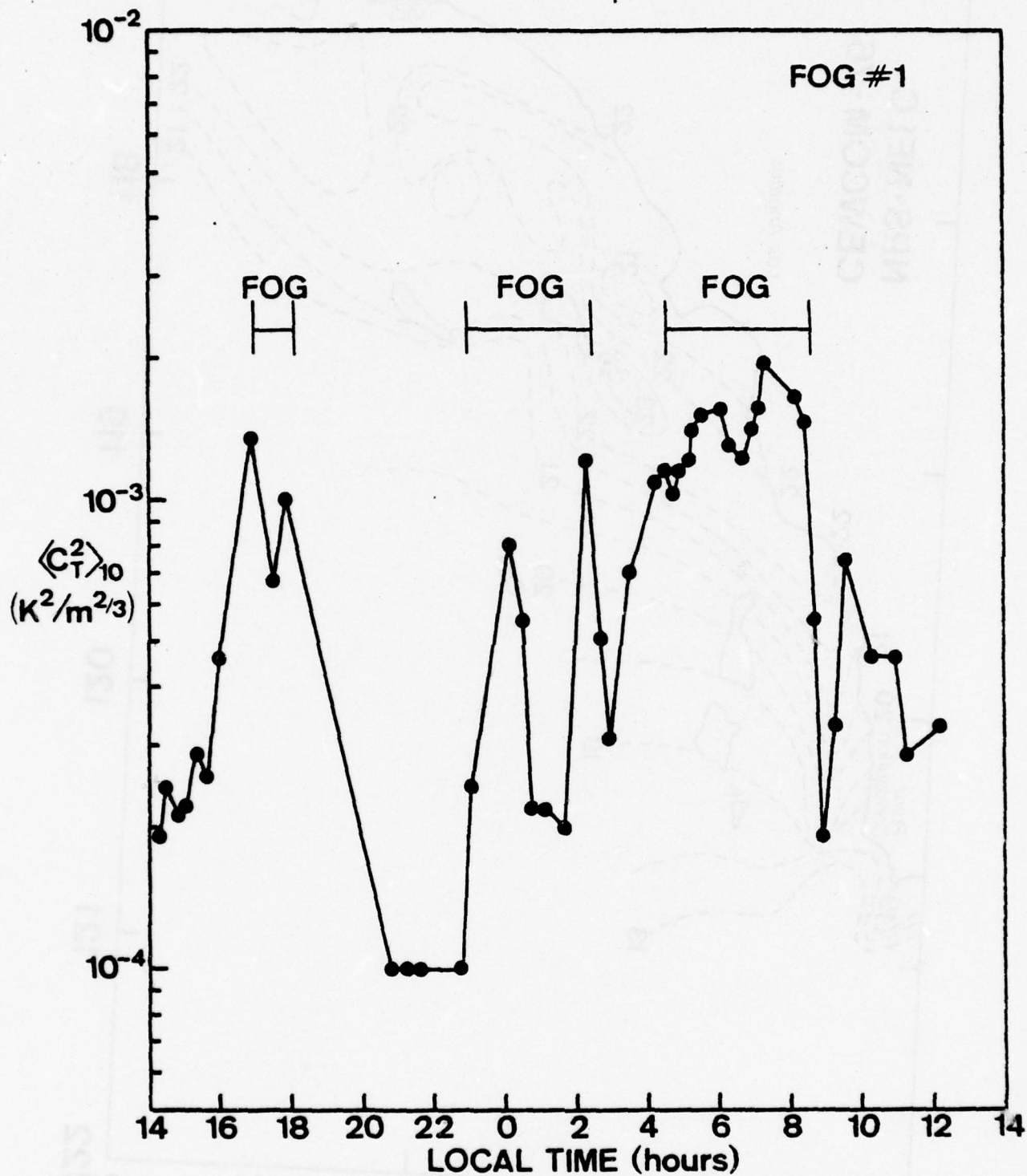


Figure 8a.

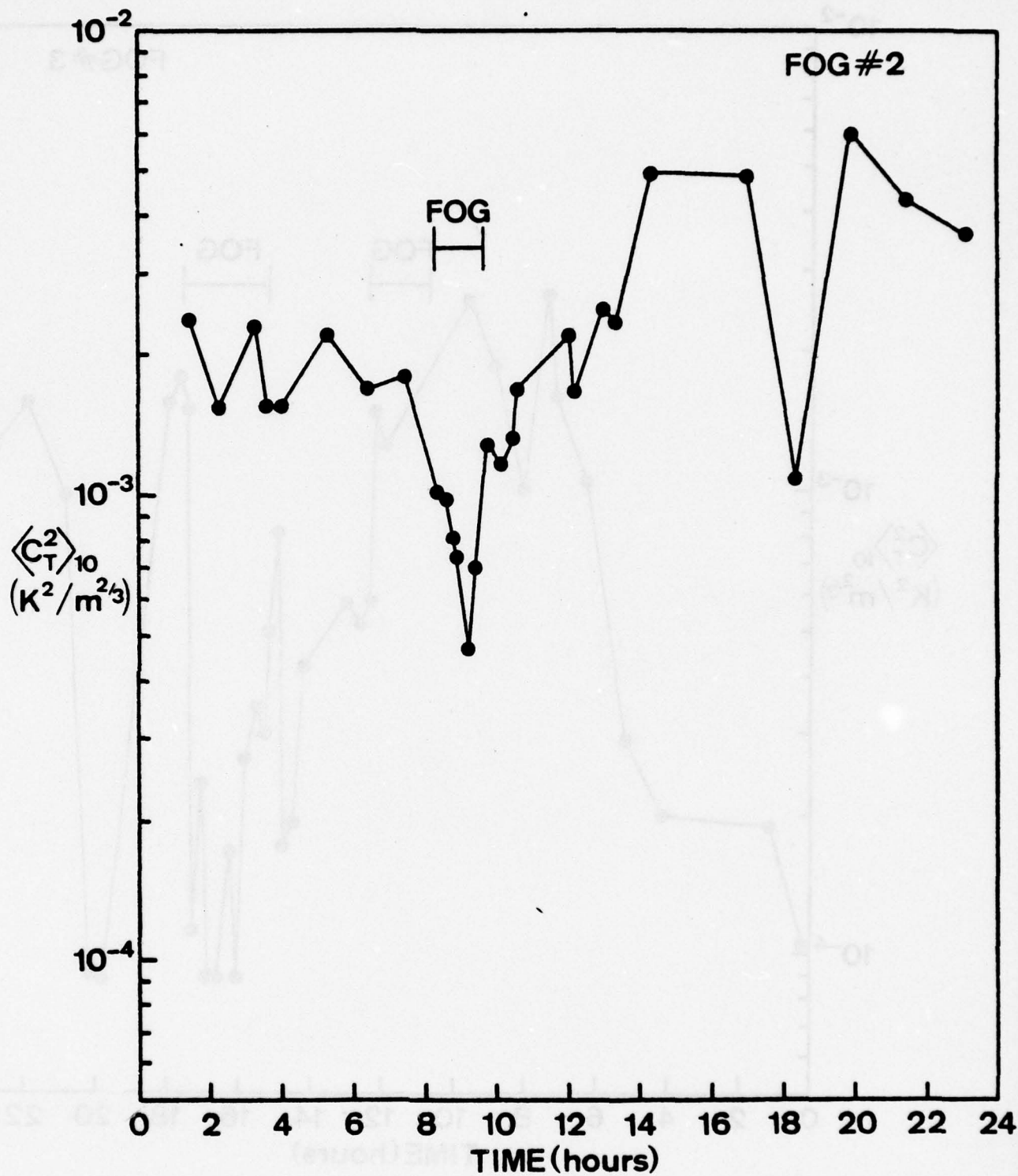


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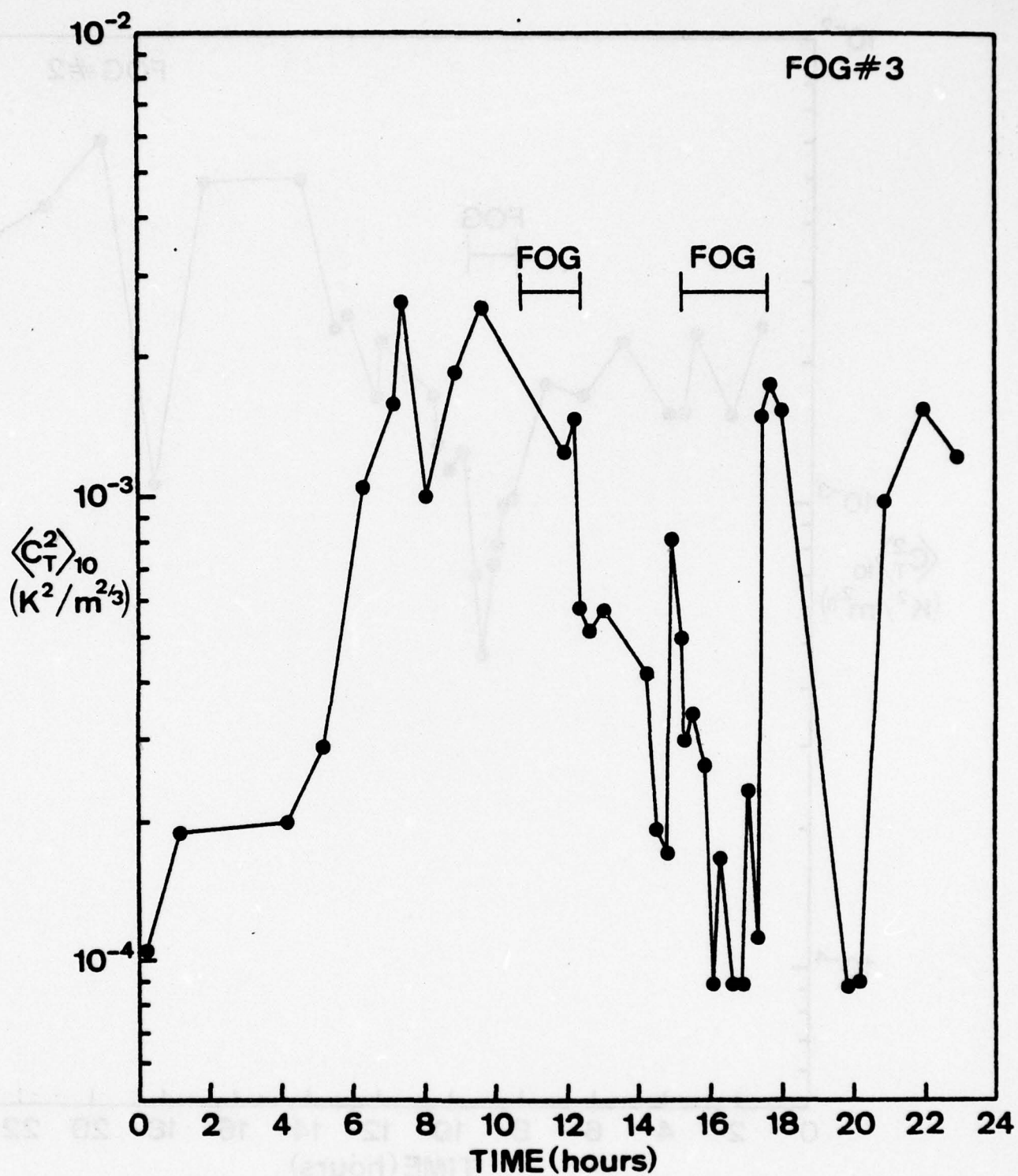


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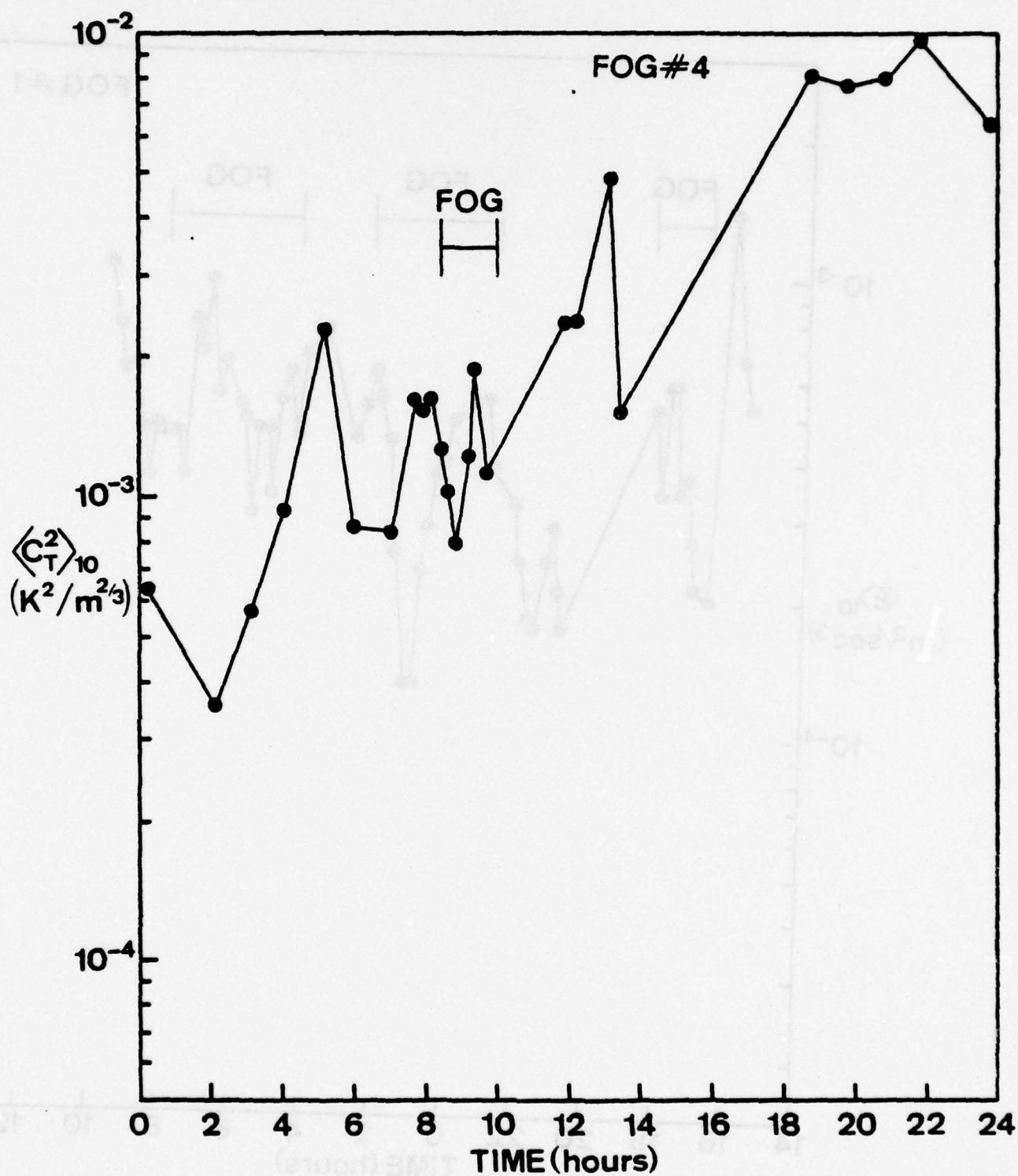


Figure 8d.

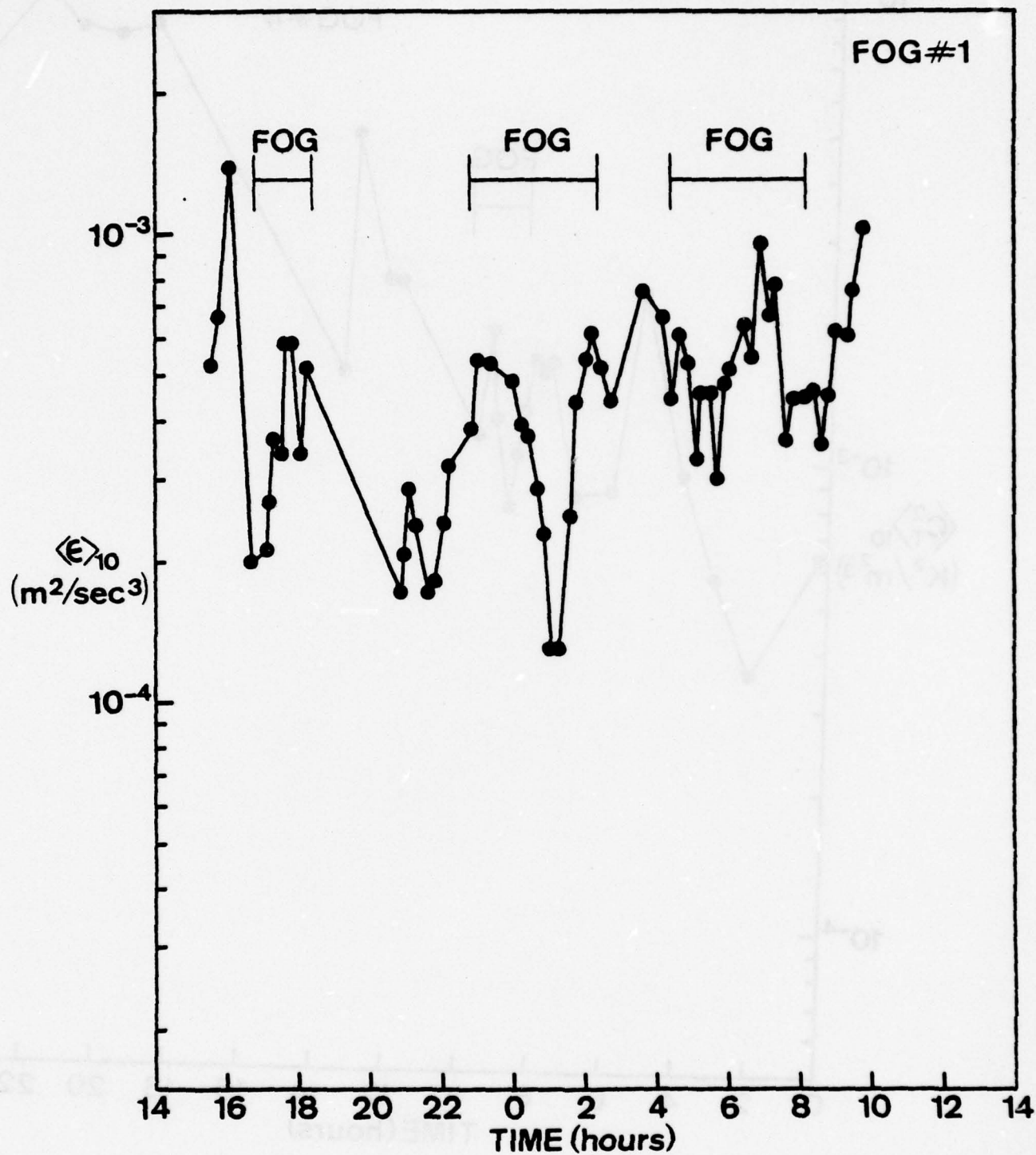


Figure 9a.

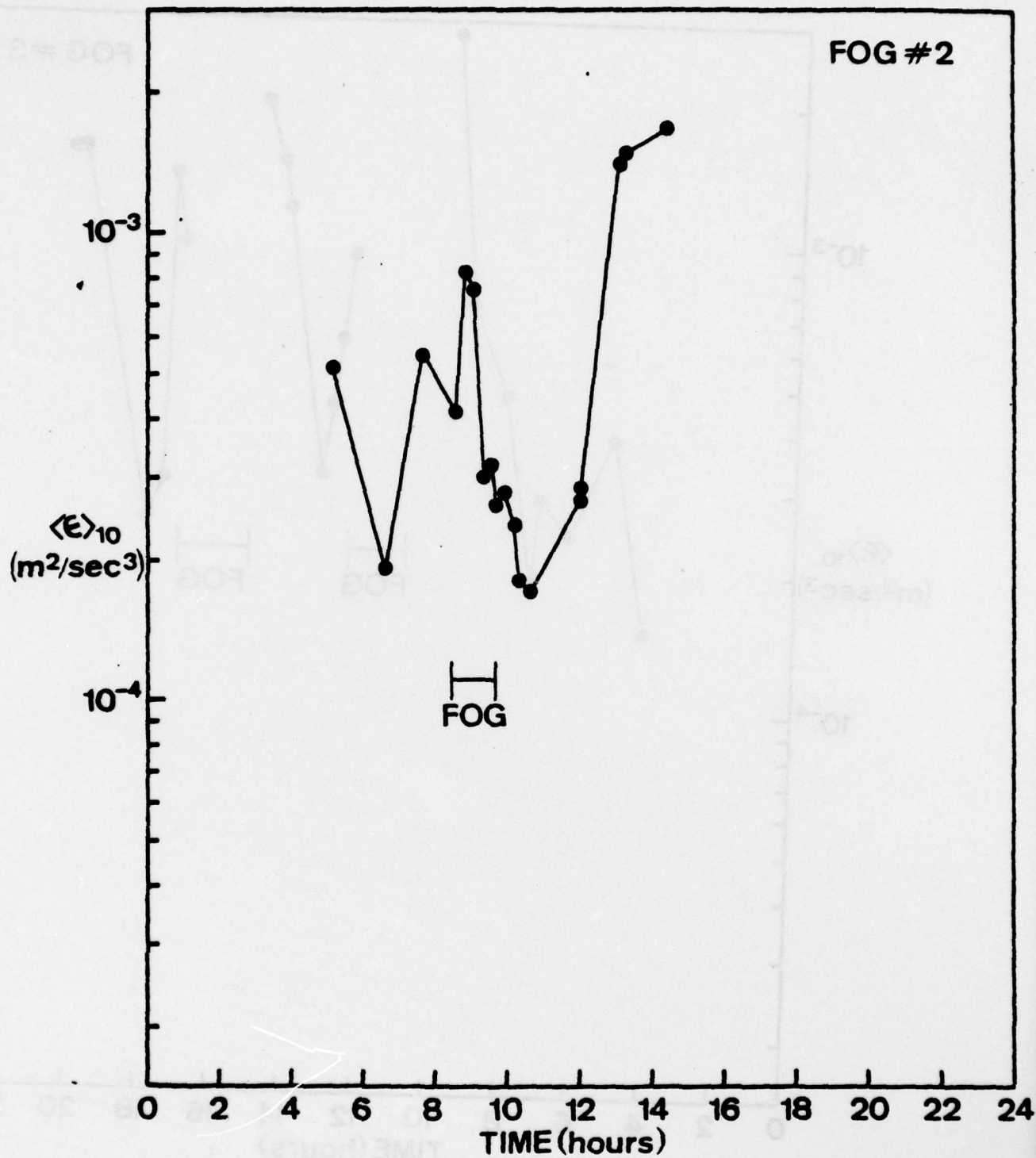


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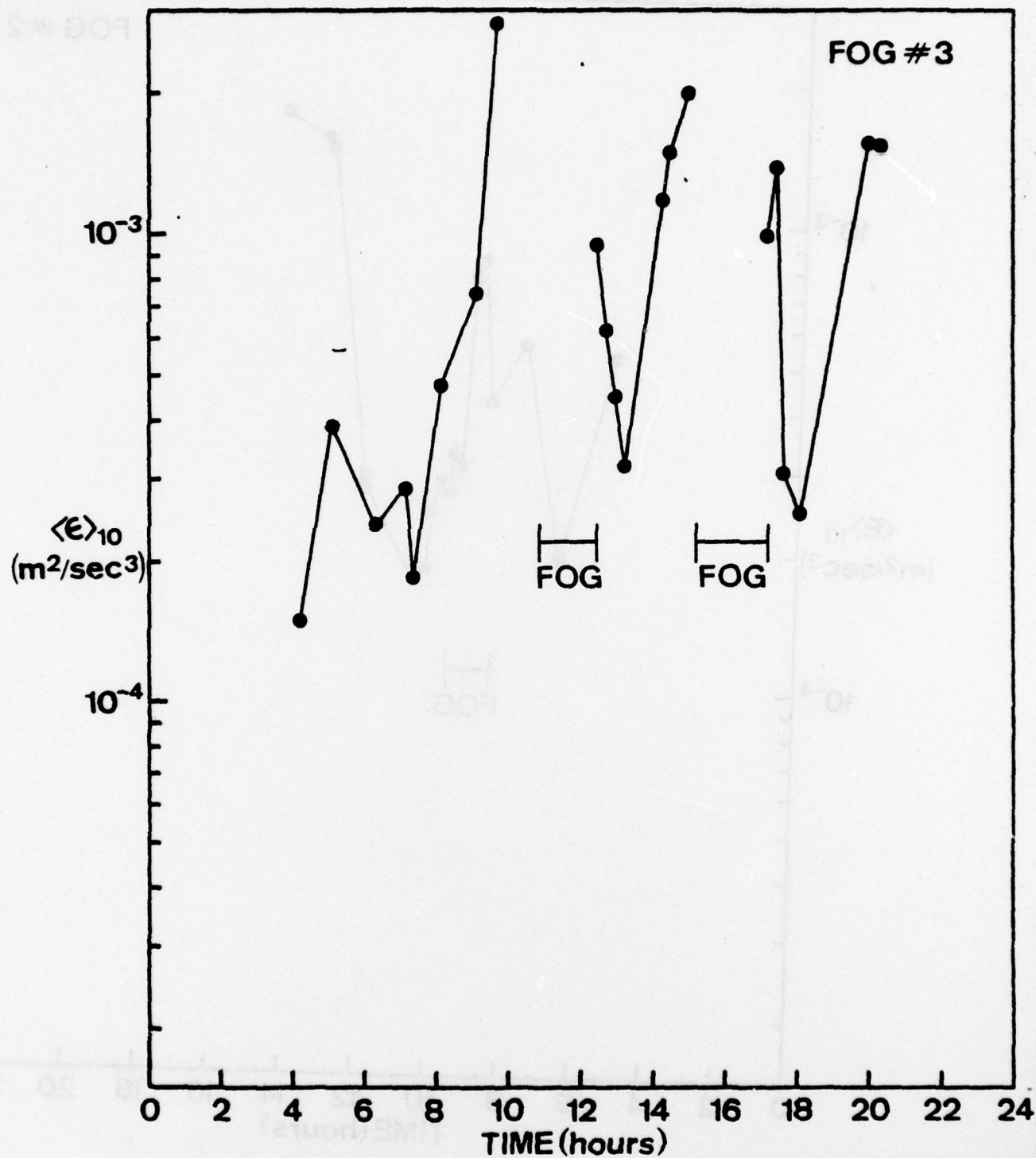


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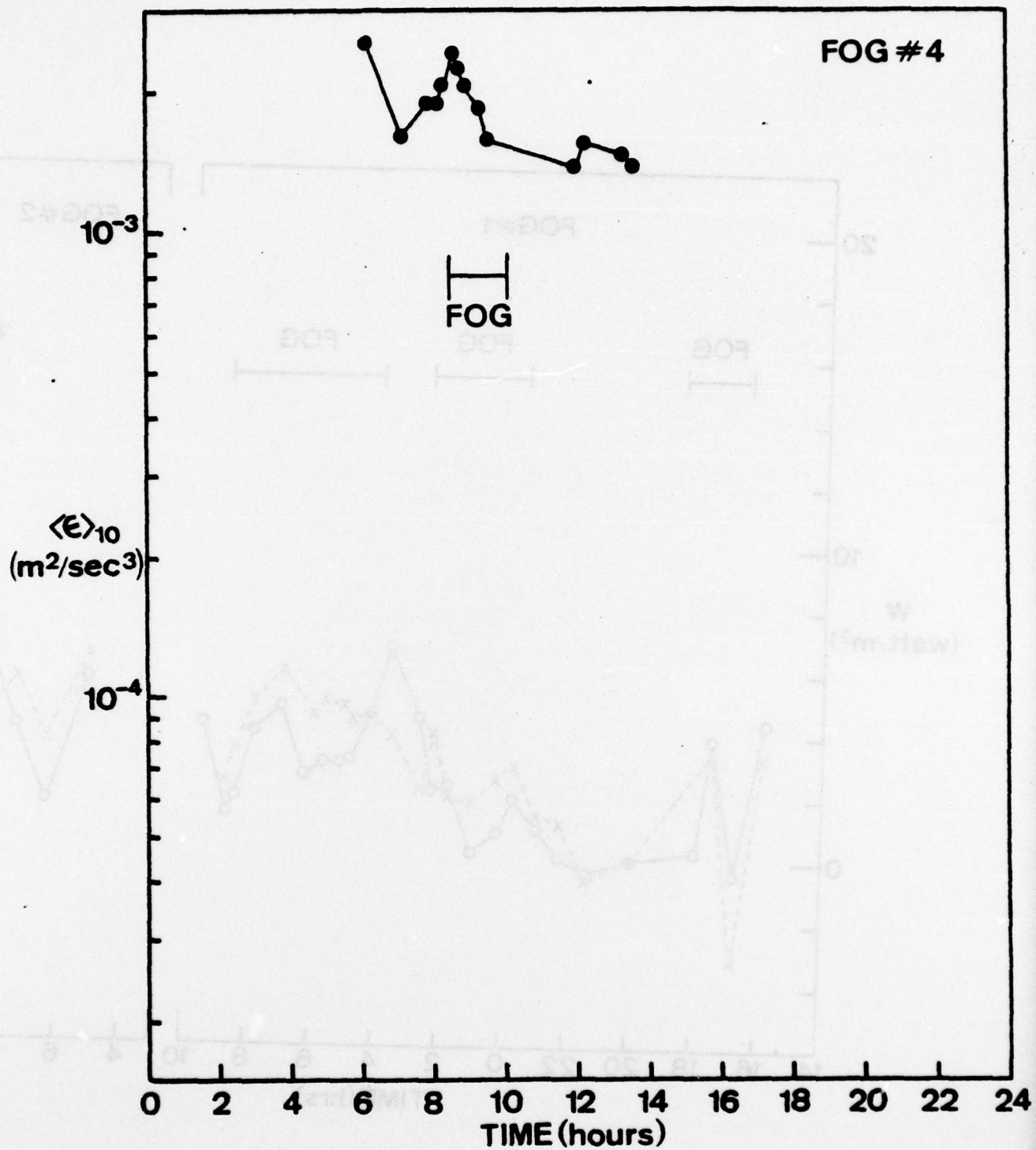


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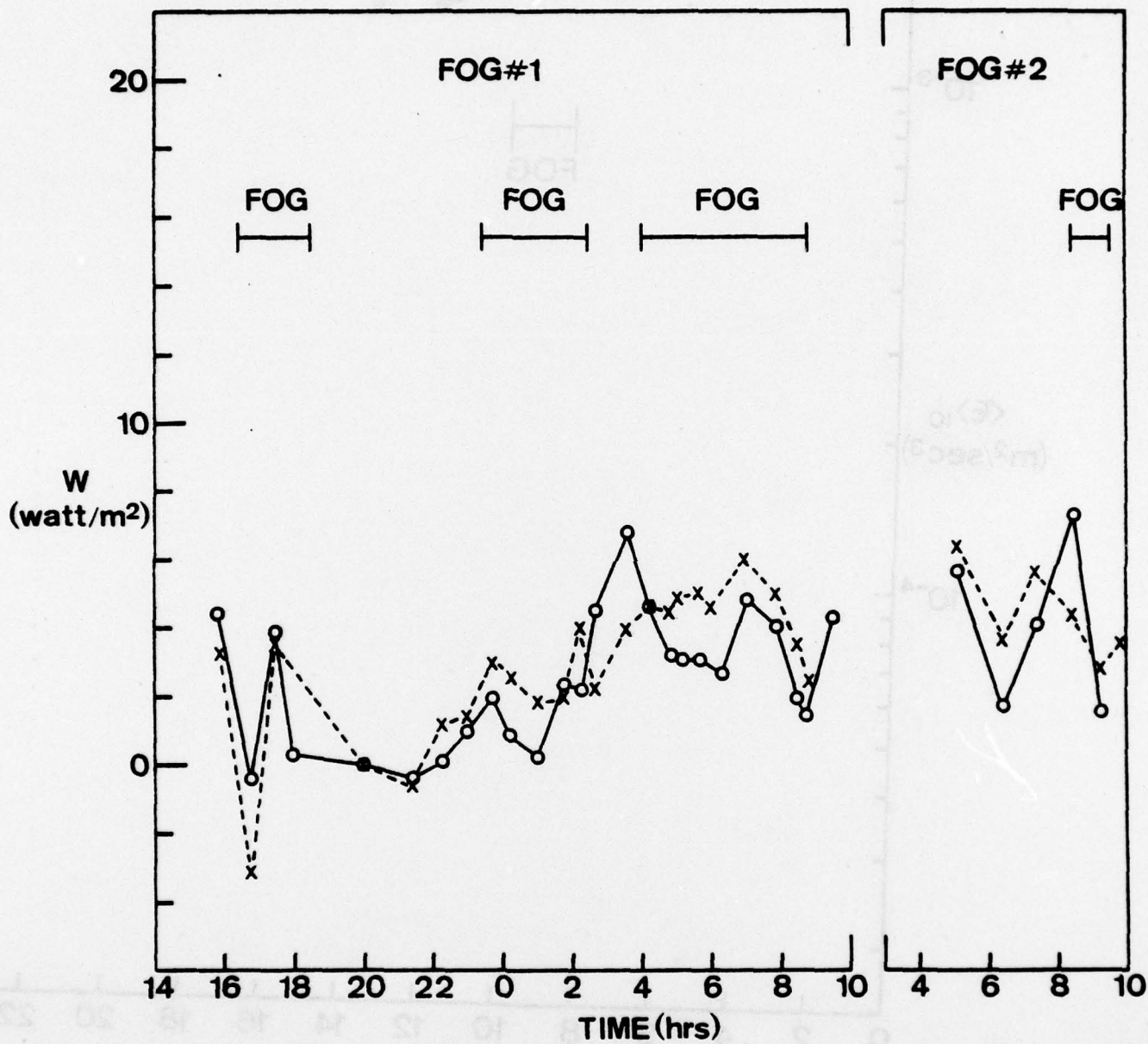


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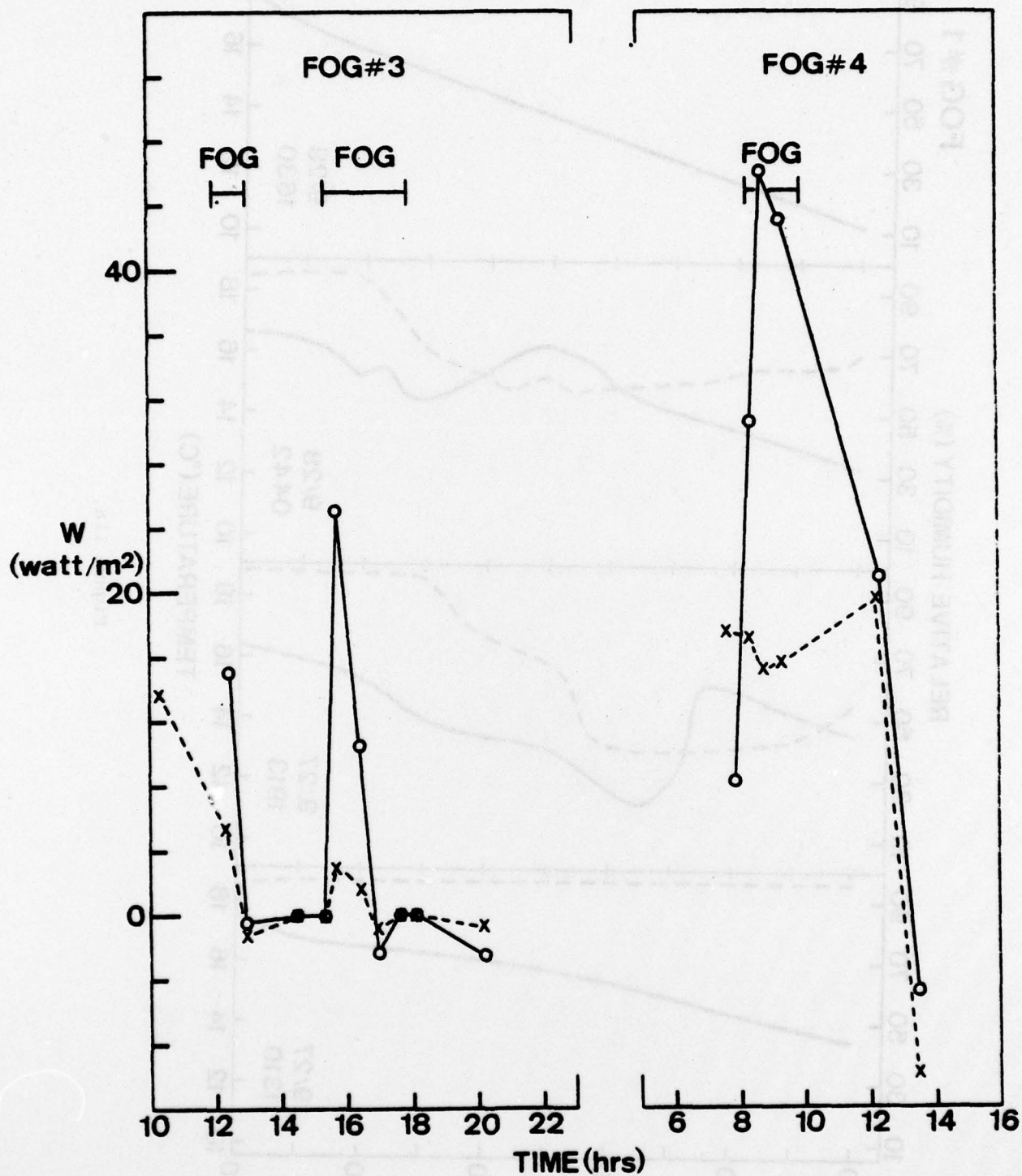


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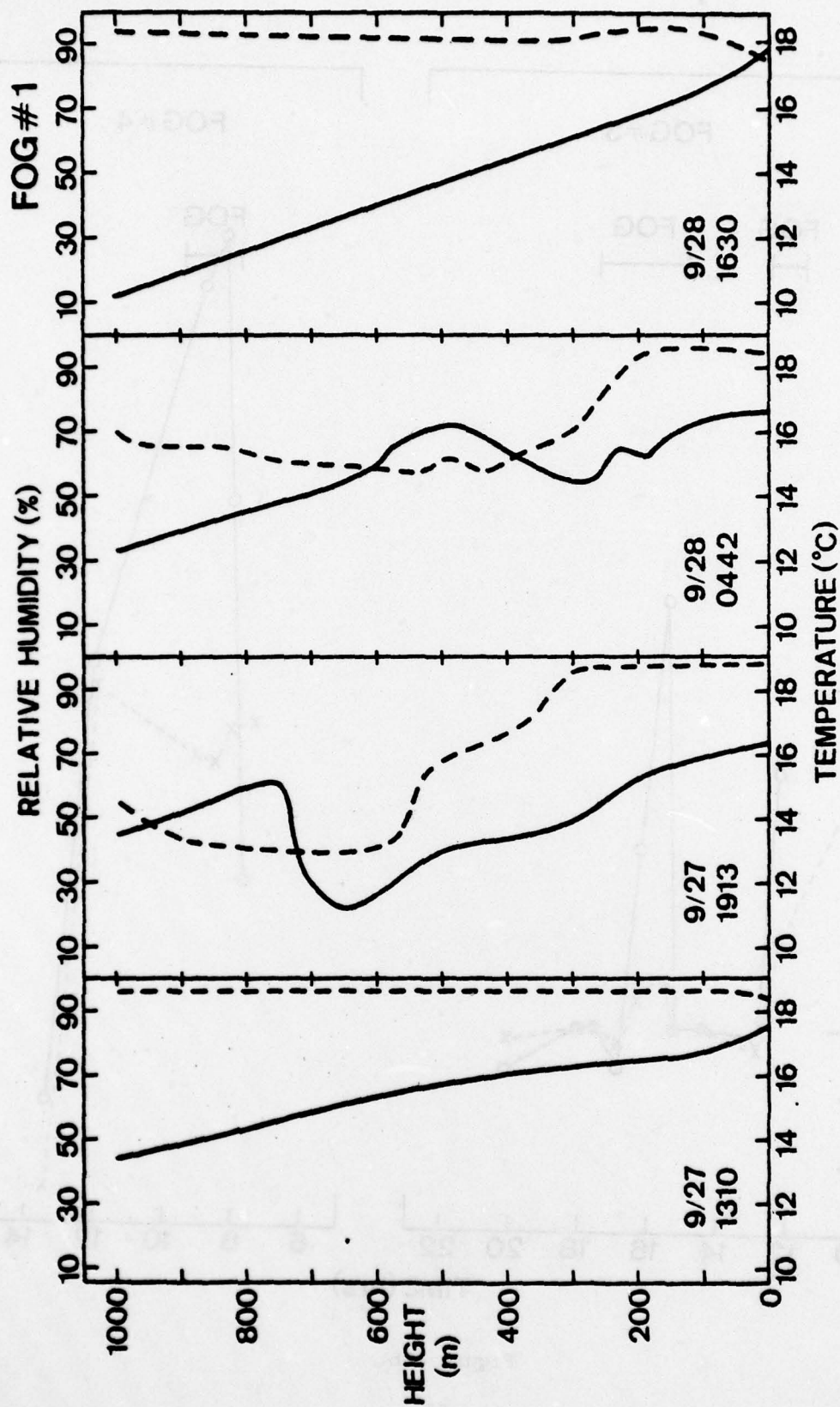


Figure 11a.

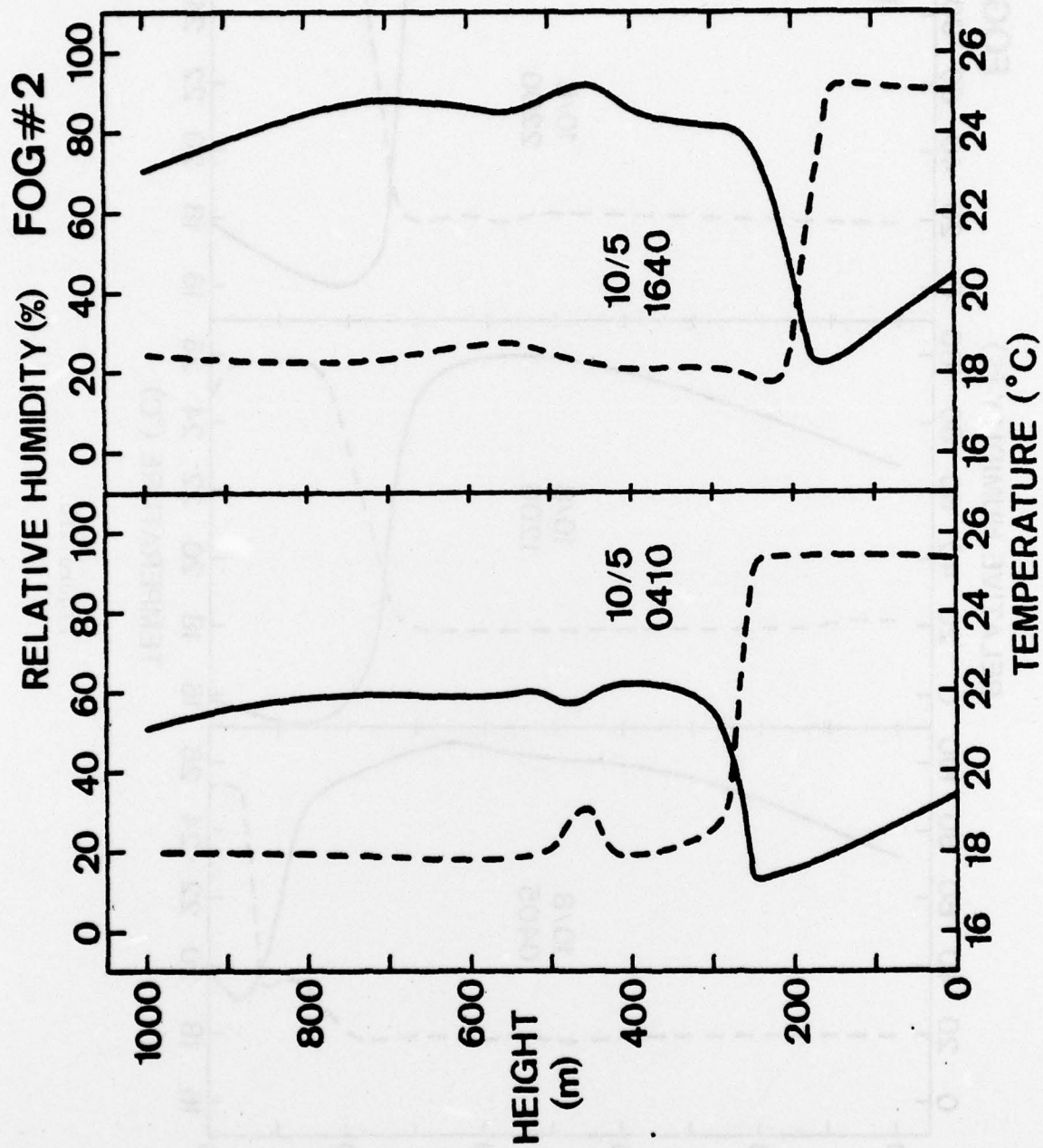


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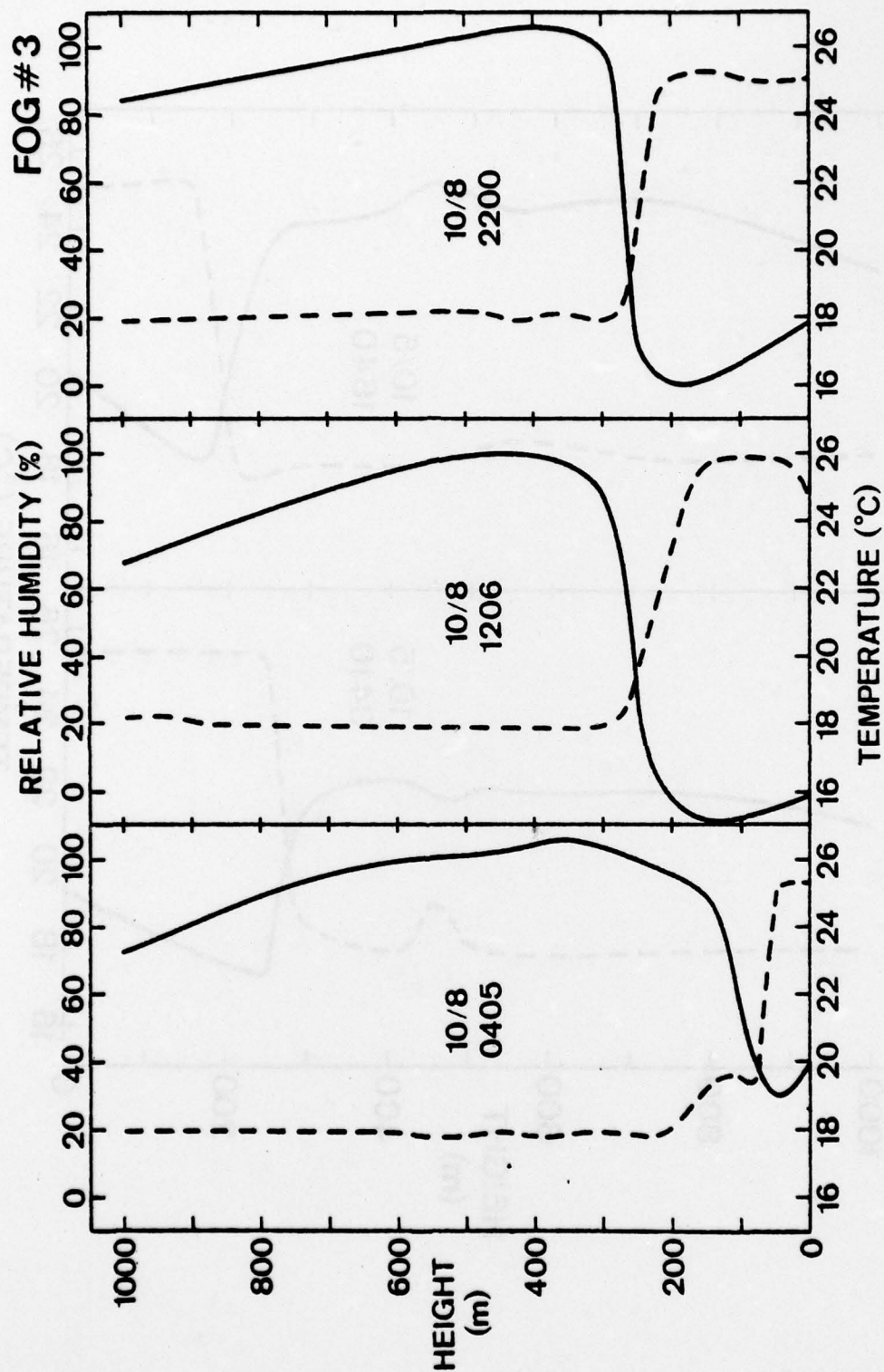


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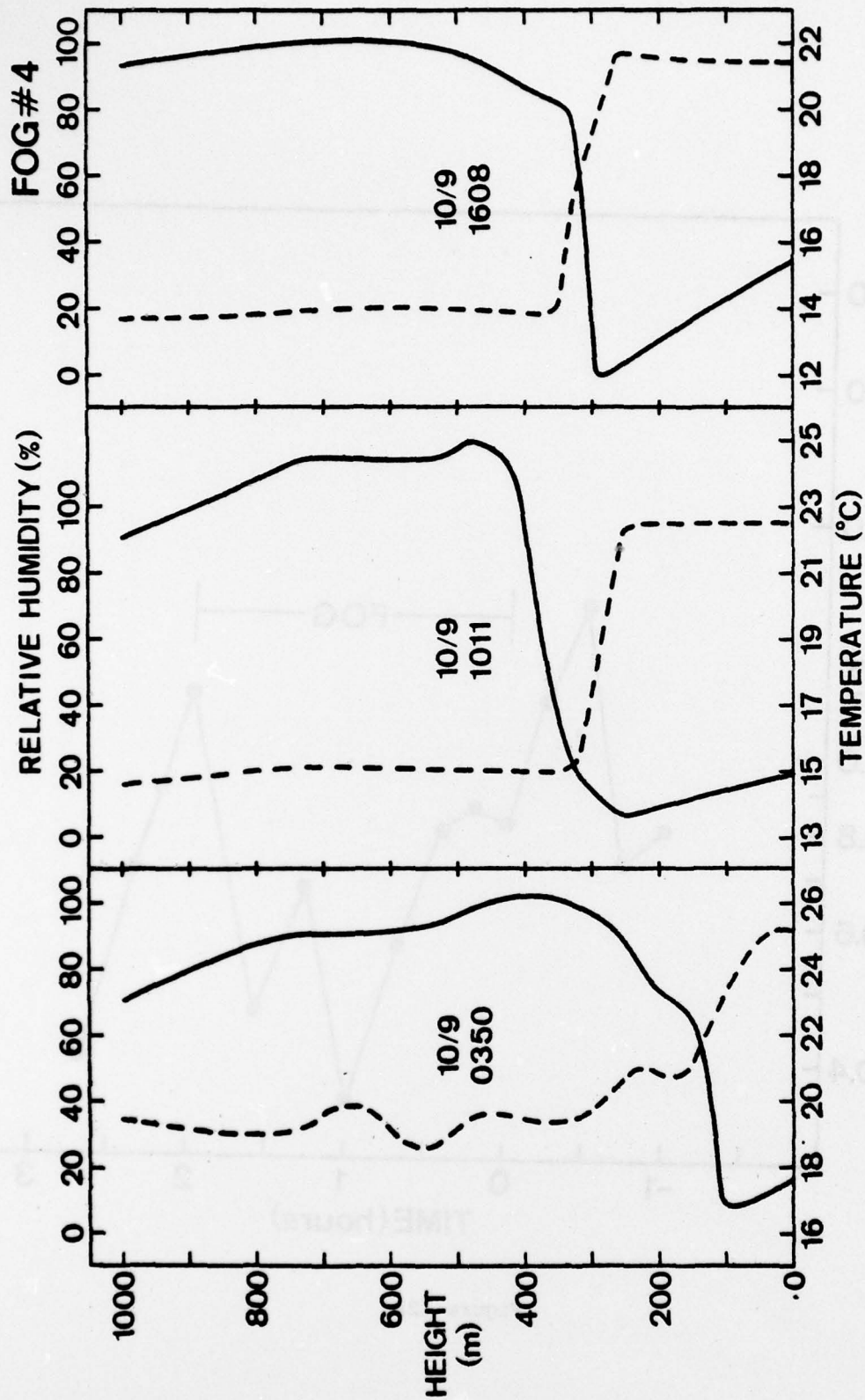


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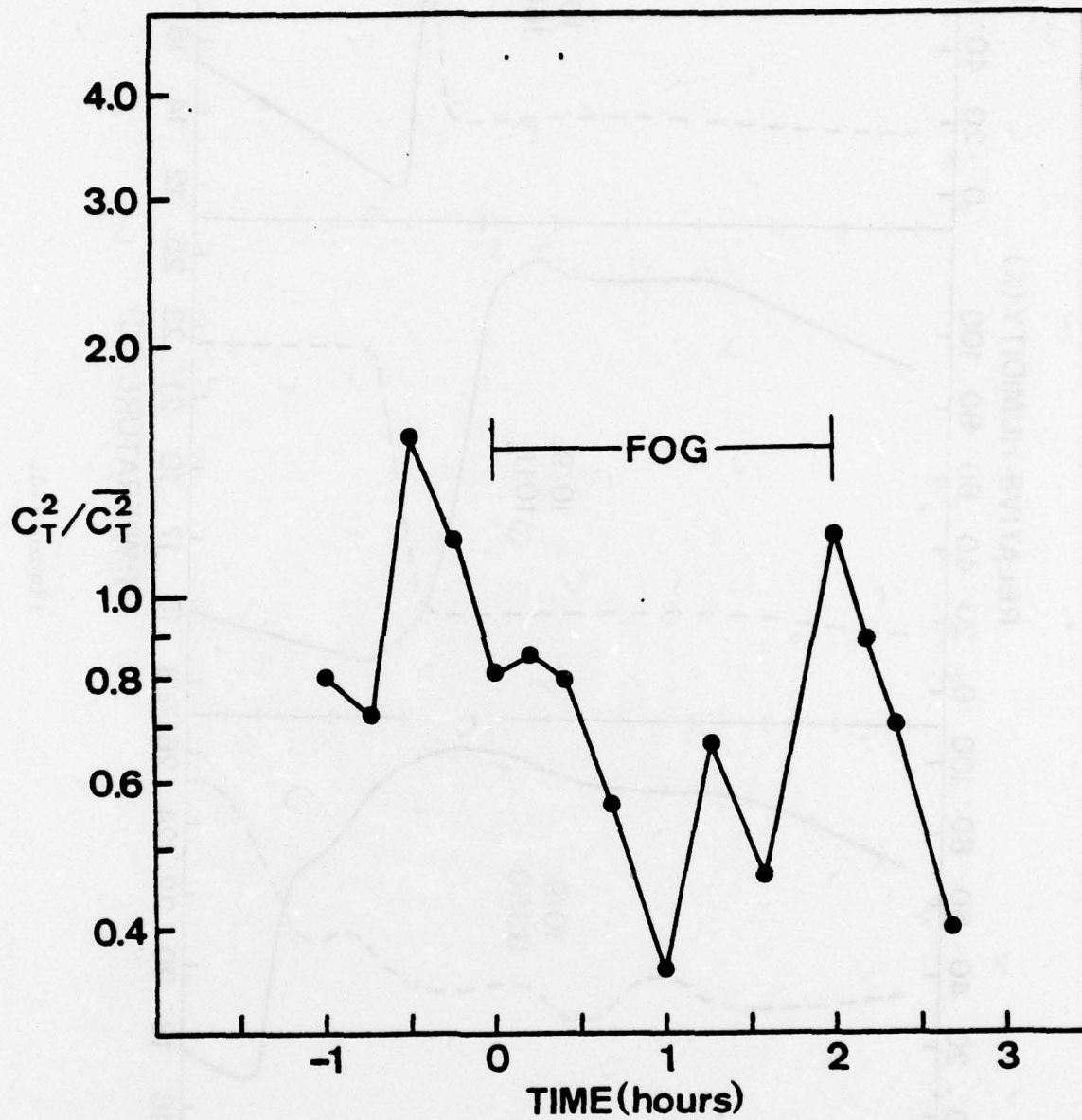


Figure 12a.

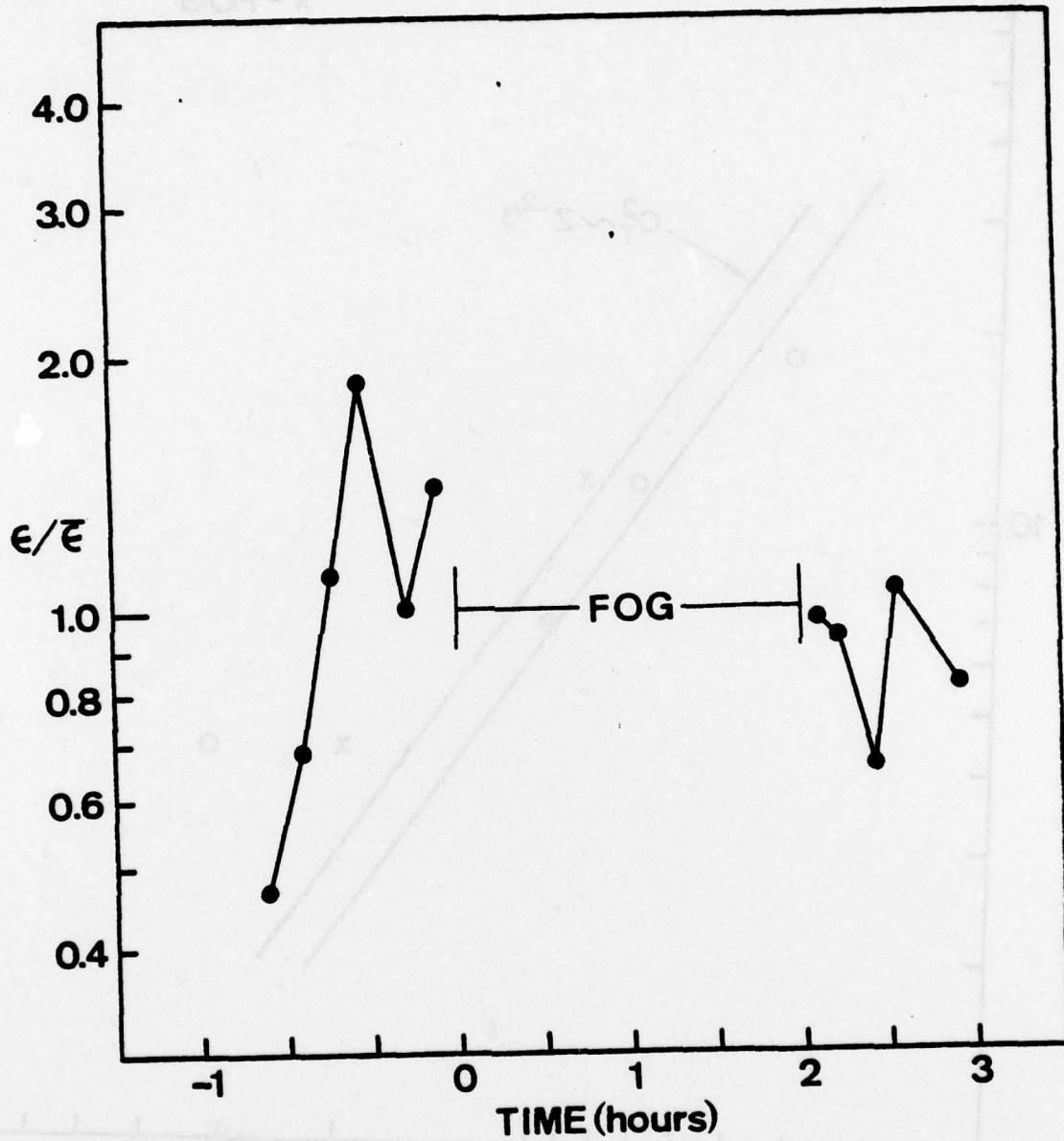


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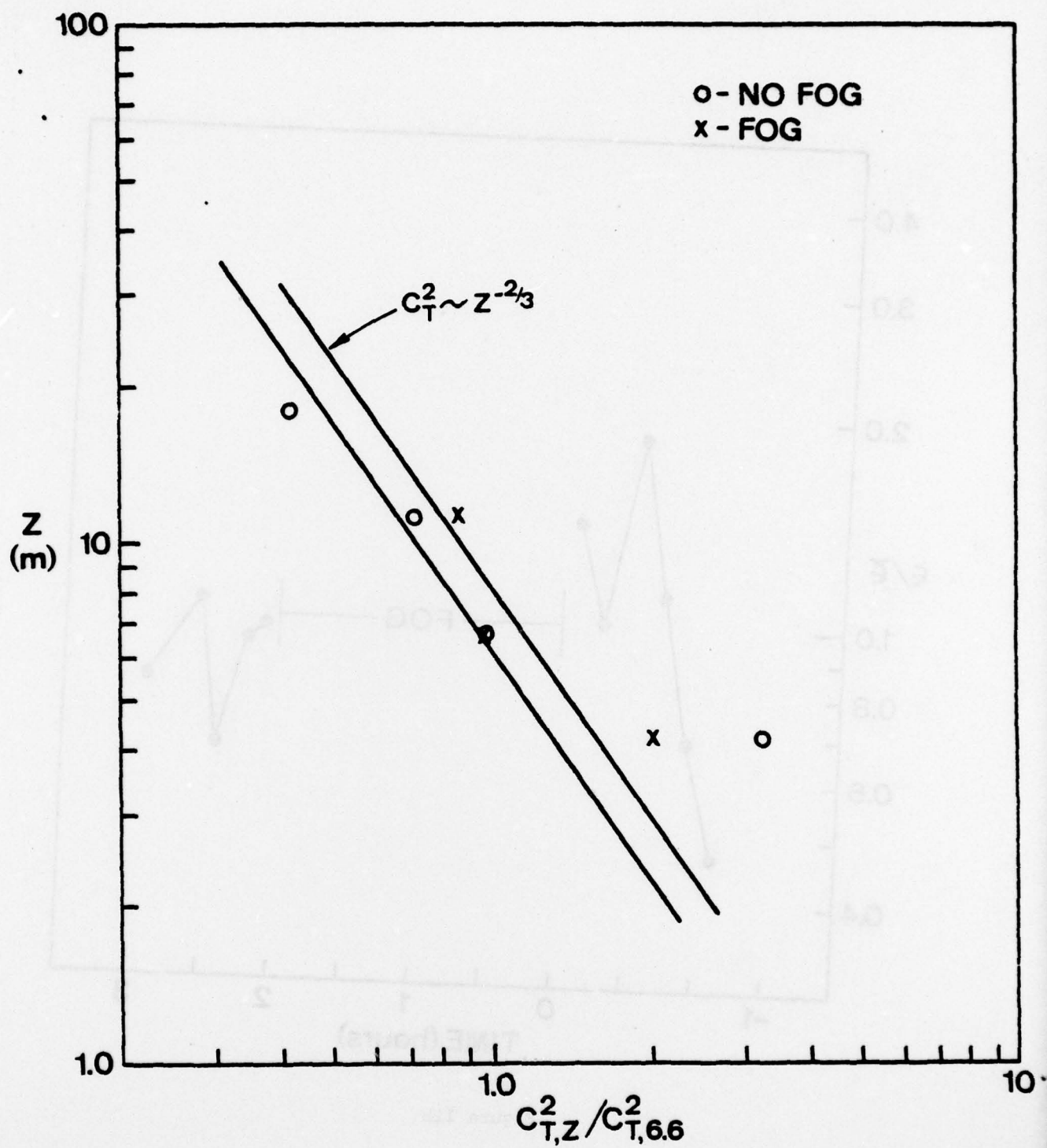


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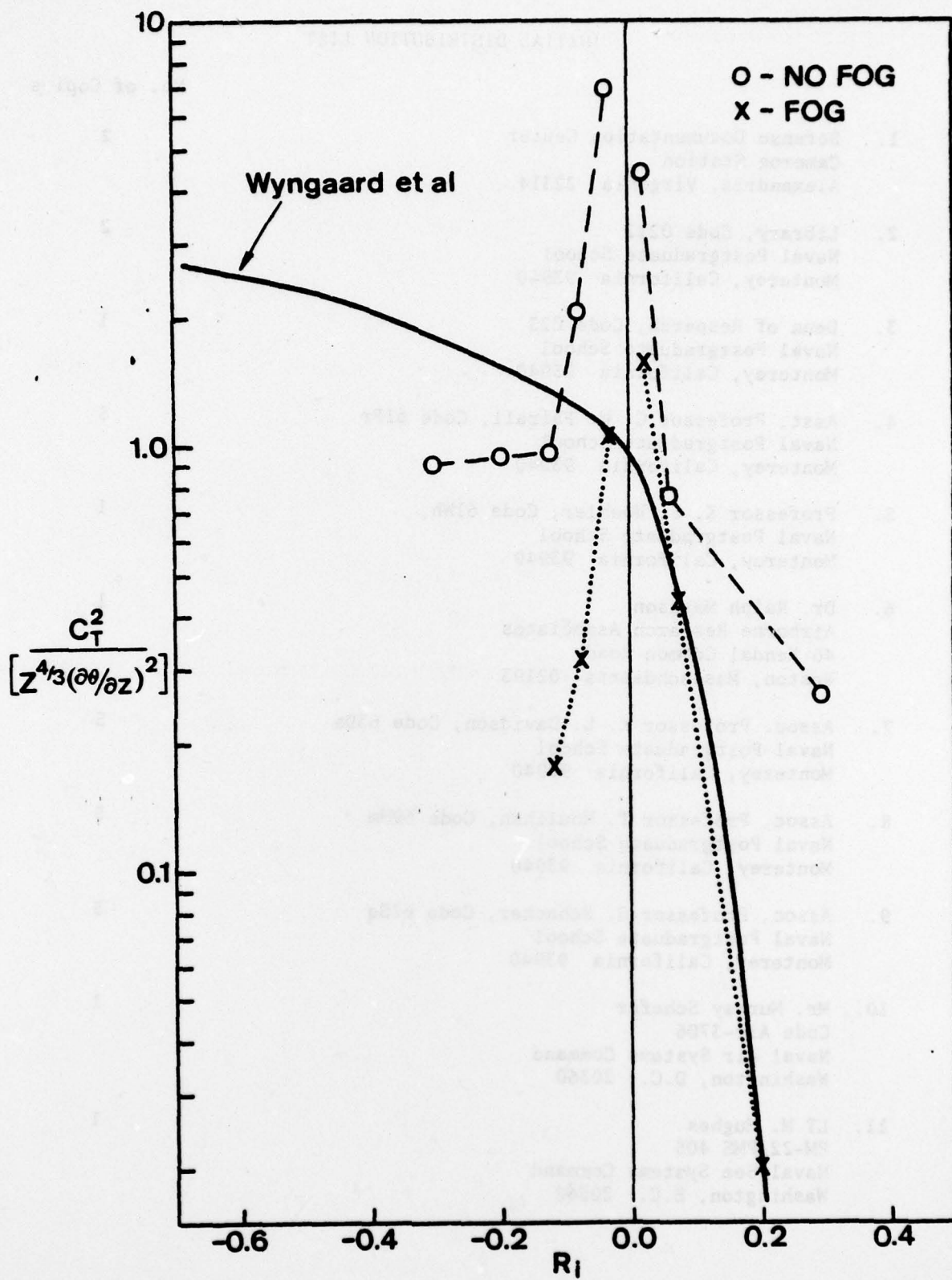


Figure 14.

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